The UNESCO Courier

A window open on the world

February 1970 (23rd year) - Price: 50 cents

The Pearson Report

A NEW STRATEGY FOR GLOBAL DEVELOPMENT

XUM

TREASURES
OF
WORLD ART

41

'Big cat' of Stone-age Cyprus

This animal head, probably of a lion or panther, was hewn from basalt rock by a Stone-age craftsman in Cyprus, almost 8,000 years ago when these fierce members of the cat family roamed the island. A mere 11 cm (4 in.) long, it was unearthed at Khirokitia from the remains of one of the early Neolithic villages brought to light by recent excavations. The inhabitants of these settlements were farmers and hunters, but they also numbered craftsmen skilled in working stone, fashioning bowls, dishes and tools as well as necklaces and amulets.

Photo © Gérard Souris - Archaeologia Viva. Cyprus Museum, Nicosia

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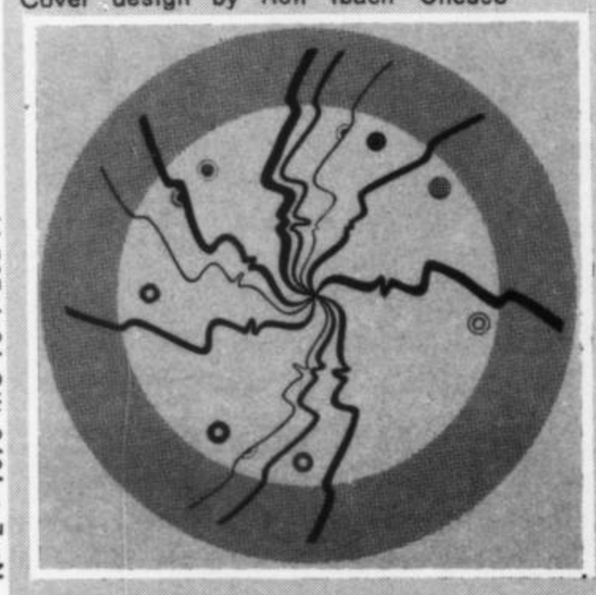
Cover design by Rolf Ibach - Unesco



International co-operation for development over the last 20 years has been of a nature and on a scale new to history. Yet massive aid and vast efforts by the developing countries have failed to close the gap between the industrial nations and the rest of the world. What new global strategy could close this gap and how soon? These are the questions examined in one of the most important studies on development produced in recent years—the Pearson Report. Our cover artist, Rolf Ibach, has sought to symbolize the intercontinental facets of this world problem, certainly one of the central issues of our time.

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THE PEARSON REPORT

This issue is devoted in major part to what has already come to be known as the "Pearson Report", the most comprehensive analysis to date of economic development. Entitled "Partners in Development", the report proposes a new basis for international co-operation and spells out the responsibilities of both donor and recipient countries. Its proposals represent a far-reaching programme of action, a new global strategy that can transform the present aid framework into one that fits the changing needs of the developing world in the next two decades.

Two years ago, the crisis of confidence in the effectiveness of development aid led George Woods, then President of the World Bank, to suggest a "grand assize" in which an international group "of stature and experience would meet together, study the consequences of twenty years of development assistance, assess the results, clarify the errors and propose the policies that will work better in the future."

In August 1968, the new President of the World Bank, Robert S. McNamara, asked Lester B. Pearson, former Prime Minister of Canada and Nobel Peace Prize winner, to form a Commission to undertake such a study. Three months later, the Commission on International Development held its first meeting in Mont Gabriel, Canada.

With Lester Pearson as its chairman, it comprised seven prominent international figures: Sir Edward Boyle (U.K.), Roberto de Oliveira Campos (Brazil), C. Douglas Dillon (U.S.), Wilfried Guth (Fed. Rep. of Germany), Sir Arthur Lewis (Jamaica), Robert E. Marjolin (France), and Saburo Okita (Japan). After 11 months of intensive investigations, including meetings in Latin America, Africa, Asia and the Middle East at which some 70 governments presented their views, the Commission drew up its findings and recommendations in a 400-page report which has now been published (For prices and other details see inside back cover).

The text below is the address Lester Pearson delivered in Washington several weeks ago before the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, in which he summarized the major findings of this far-reaching study. Other articles in this issue present excepts and summaries of the conclusions and proposals in the Pearson Report.

A NEW STRATEGY FOR GLOBAL DEVELOPMENT

by Lester B. Pearson — Nobel Peace Prize, 1957

LESTER B. PEARSON. *Prime Minister of Canada from 1963 to 1968, was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1957. Statesman and diplomat, he was an adviser to the 1945 San Francisco Conference that drew up the U.N. Charter. He also shared in planning that led to the creation of the Food and Agriculture Organization and of UNRRA, which helped to restore the economies of war-ravaged countries and cared for displaced persons. He led successive delegations to the U.N. General Assembly, of which he was president in 1952-53, and took a leading part in most of the historic international events of the time. In 1960, he became international executive chairman of the Council on World Tensions. His books include "Democracy in World Politics" (1955), "Diplomacy in the Nuclear Age" (1959), "Peace in the Family of Man" (1968).*

Not only is the question of development difficult and complex in itself ; but we have been examining it during a tense and difficult period in human affairs. The tone of the times is doubtful and discordant. A decade which began with the all but total liquidation of the old colonial order has ended with man walking on the moon.

Goals reached often serve only to illuminate the long, dangerous road ahead. The absence of war has not brought peace, but an uneasy twilight zone darkened by the shadow of total destruction. Concern for the rights and dignity and freedom of all men has not only sharpened conflict over how to protect these essential values but has revealed that there are multitudes who still do not enjoy them.

The implausible speed of technological change has exposed and rendered less tolerable the glacial pace of social transformation. Unprecedented economic progress in many areas has

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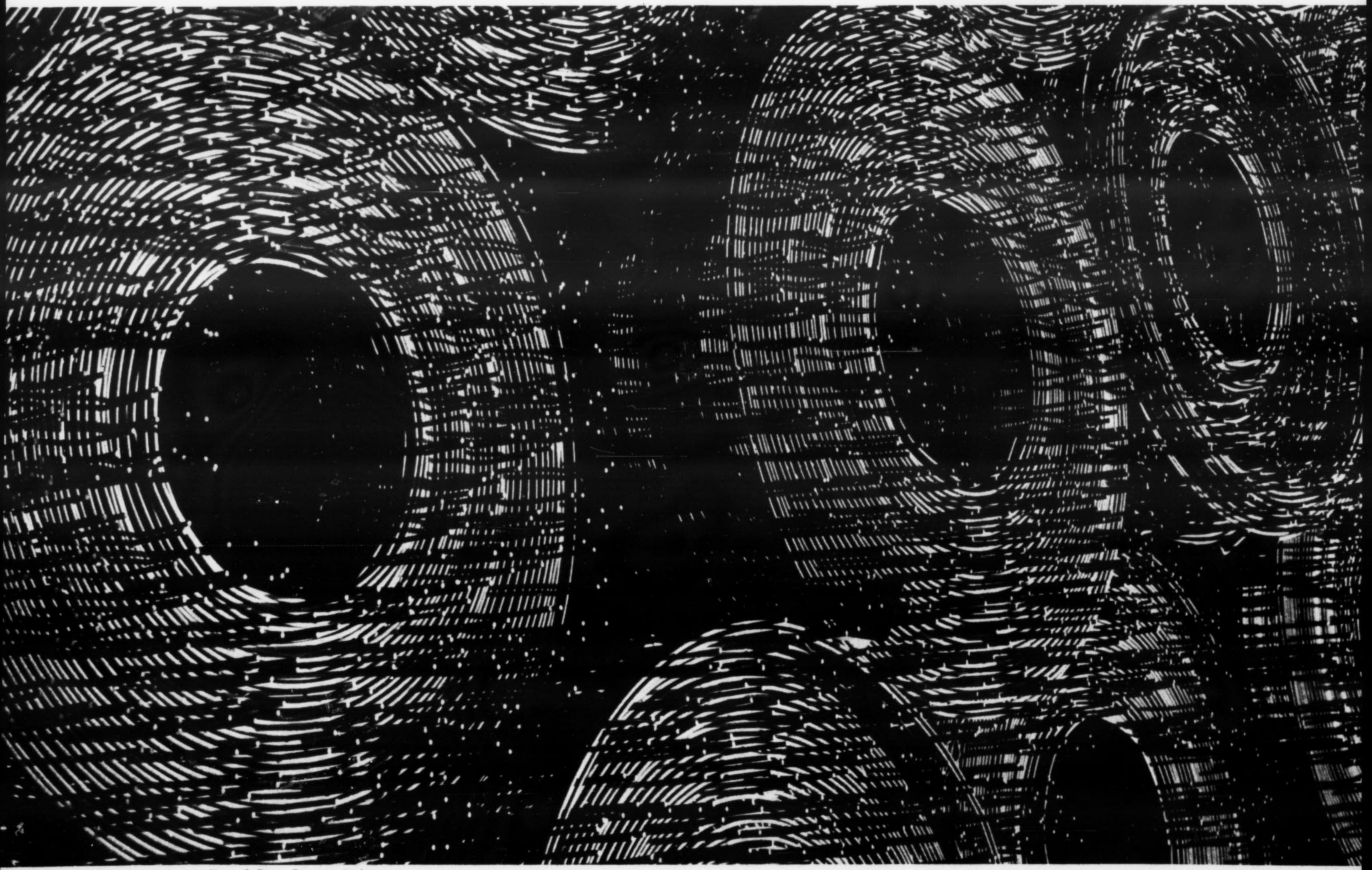
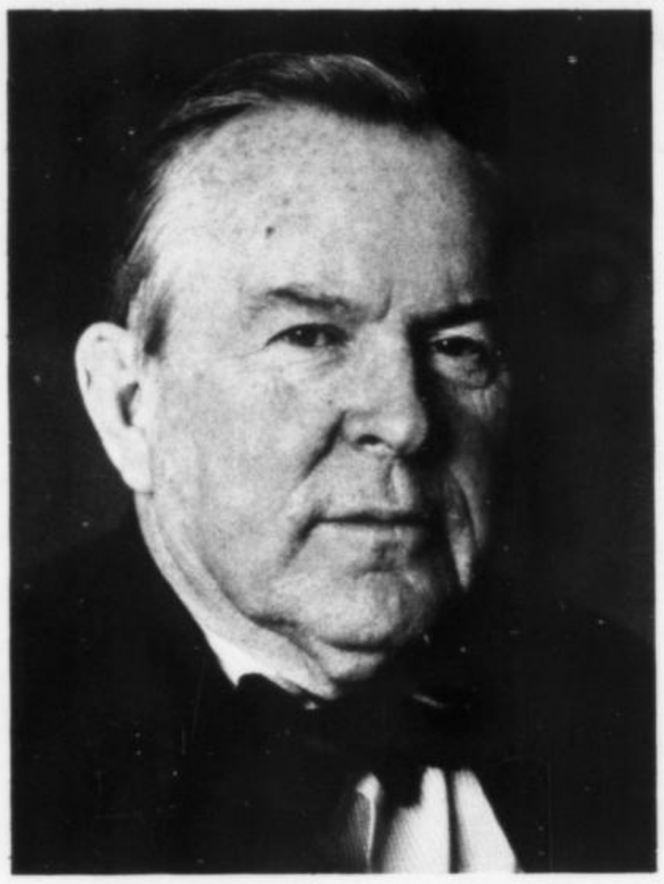


Photo © Roger Canessa, Toulon

The eight members of the World Bank Commission on International Development, headed by Lester B. Pearson, who drew up the far-ranging study, "Partners in Development".



Lester B. Pearson (Canada)

Sir Edward Boyle (U.K.)

Doubts, cynicism and disillusions

thrown into sharp relief the deprivations and flagging hopes of the less fortunate.

The circumstances in which the developing nations have tried to modernize their societies present new and unprecedented obstacles to the effort. The results they have achieved can only be properly analyzed and appreciated against the background of these obstacles.

Development is an ancient concept but one which, in our modern age, has acquired new meaning and purpose. Its pursuit unites two strands of human thought : the belief in progress and the conviction that man can master his destiny.

The roots of modern progress reach back to the origin of human civilization, but its acceleration since the industrial revolution has had an uneven impact and has created serious strains. This is true inside the industrialized countries themselves where whole regions are left behind in the surge of rising prosperity. Above all, it has produced a wide gap between the industrialized countries and the rest of the world.

In an attempt to bridge this gap and to repair centuries of neglect and stagnation, nations untouched by the technological revolution have mobilized their resources while the international community has helped in an unprecedented manner by a massive transfer of resources.

It is the nature of international co-operation for development that it should have a tentative, groping quality. These are largely uncharted areas, and the costs of exploration are as high as the results are uncertain. Some social and economic enterprises, often experimental, will yield high returns; others will not, and will be pushed aside by more promising endeavours.

It was not the task of our commission to go into all the ramifications of the development process; but rather to enquire whether the international co-operative effort, derived from this new feeling of commitment, and dedicated to promoting the growth of low-income areas, warrants continued heavy expenditures of energy and resources on the part of the richer, developed countries; and, if so, how the effort can be strengthened and improved by steps on both sides.

WE are convinced that co-operation for development is not only practicable—but is of essential importance. Our study of the experience of the last two decades has confirmed that belief. The flow of public and private resources from developed to developing countries, with the results achieved, represents an example of foresight too rarely in evidence in world affairs. It would be tragic if we now turned our backs on this effort.

Nevertheless, doubts and fears now afflict the development effort. Too often, particularly in the larger donor countries, the prevalent attitude is one of weariness, disillusion, and even rejection. Recipient countries also have increasing doubts about some aspects of foreign assistance, which makes development co-operation more difficult. Too many in both developed and developing countries are becoming cynical, not only about the effectiveness of the aid effort, but about the the validity of the very concept of aid.

Because some donor countries have attempted to seek political influence or direct economic gain from aid. sensitive leaders in governments of some developing countries see in such policies—even if they are designated "aid"—a form of neo-colonial intervention ; not an expression of genuine international co-operation, or an authentic expression of international interdependance or human solidarity.

In some donor countries, there is growing opposition or indifference to aid for development as costly, wasteful, ineffective and unnecessary. We try to deal with these objections in our report.

There are others, however, who would wholeheartedly support a genuine policy of co-operation and aid for development, who do not find this in the current aid policies of some developed countries which they feel to be too closely linked with narrów political and commercial interests of the donor; or as something too closely tied to a wrong foreign policy.

The fact is that we are reaching a point of decision, even of crisis, in the history of this novel—and noble—adventure in international co-operation.

To cope with it, we must face up to, and try to answer, the basic question: why should countries, strong and affluent it is true, but beset by

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Roberto de Oliveira Campos (Brazil)

C. Douglas Dillon (U.S.)

Wilfried Guth (Fed. Rep. of Germany)

Sir Arthur Lewis (Jamaica)

Robert E. Marjolin (France)

Saburo Okita (Japan)

Photos World Bank

many agonizingly complex domestic, economic and social problems, be concerned to do anything about the plight of the poor countries? In short: why aid at all?

The first response to this question is, of course, the moral one. Every accepted system of values in the world proclaims the duty of the rich and the privileged to help the poor and the deprived.

Every religion, every article of humanistic faith, reminds the fortunate of the responsibility which attends good fortune. The growth and spread of civilization, the building of the communities which we have come to call nations, the common rule of individual and national behaviour which makes possible our continued existence in a nuclear age, all these reinforce the proposition that it is the duty of those who have resources and skills to share them with those who have not.

This is a deep and durable reason for support of development and for development aid. Too often, in our day-to-day struggle for national or personal interest, we forget the simple power of this instinct; even though we know how dehumanizing the consequences would be if we were ever finally to ignore it. However, humanitarian and moral concern for others does not by any means exhaust the case for aid.

Of equal—to some people of greater—importance are the requirements, indeed the compulsions, of an increasingly close and interdependent world community. These requirements do not dismiss national interest as the basis of policy but they insist that it must include considerations that are extra-national.

National self-interest is a rational basis for policy—in aid and anything else—but only if it is enlightened and farsighted and looks beyond its own boundaries.

The establishment of a good economic and political relationship through co-operation for development is a worthy objective and could be a rewarding one. Certainly there will be more development and progress in the richer industrialized countries if the poorer countries with two-thirds of the world's population can develop.

THE reverse is also true. It becomes more apparent with every passing day that the interests of each nation and each man are inseparable from those of all others. It is now almost without reason to ask where one nation will be twenty-five years from now without at the same time asking where the world will be.

The revolution in transportation, in communications, in production methods, and in so many other aspects of life and society has ended forever the day when individual countries can gain lasting advantage through the defeat or decay of their neighbours.

Recognition of these facts has led to a new concept of national self-interest, which is not the less impressive because it is so often honoured in the breach. Basically, it asserts that the paramount, long-term interest of all nations, rich and poor, is in the creation of a world in which all the world's resources, human and physical, are put to the greatest possible use.

This is the vision which should inspire all who look beyond the anxieties of today to the opportunities of tomorrow.

We have learned in the last twenty years that this vision can only be realized if the wealthy countries join in a sustained effort to help the developing countries to help themselves.

We no longer ask why rich people or rich regions of our homeland are to be taxed to help reduce and remove poverty in underdeveloped areas. We recognize such commitments as the natural obligations of community. The time has come for a similar national commitment of assistance to those developing countries who are themselves willing and able to expend the effort necessary to achieve the economic and social progress which the new technology now makes possible.

Let us be in no doubt about the intention of these developing countries. For them, development is no longer an option; it is an imperative. They do not intend to slumber for more centuries. Development is part of their unfinished revolution: another stage in their struggle for freedom.

The question is not whether development will happen. It will. Rather, the choice is between slow, halting growth in an environment of desperation with declining levels of assistance and embittered international relations, or growth as part of a positive, concerted campaign to accelerate and smooth the absorption of the technological revolution in the poorer countries, with a reasonable chance that the spirit of shared concern and effort will reduce the frictions and the dangers, and facilitate and expedite positive results.

If the developing countries have no choice, developed countries have. But do they realize how a choice for disengagement would affect their own societies?

The notion of the basic rights of man is of the essence in all the civiliz-

CONTINUED NEXT PAGE

An uneasy twilight zone

ed societies of the world. It shapes and informs the values by which these societies govern themselves.

Can the denial of these rights in the economic and social sphere—which is what we are now dealing with—to two-thirds of the people of the world be ignored without damage to the principle and interests of the fortunate few? I think not.

If the rich and the strong of this world were to succeed in ignoring the weak and the poor, they would do well to examine what they themselves had become.

The division, the disparity, the gap, between the two worlds is widening and becoming more critical. From this, tragic conclusions are drawn and frightening results are predicted. Of course, comparative statistics can often make the situation worse than it is, and give a misleading impression.

It does not make sense, for instance, to suggest that a ratio of 15 to 1 in the "per capita" income of two countries means that the citizens of one country are living fifteen times as well as those of the other. There is much more to the quality of life than a rising income.

ECONOMIC statistics alone do not give a true comparison between the living standards and satisfactions of a tenant in a high-rise housing development in a packed and polluted megalopolis and those of a village in sunny Ceylon.

Nevertheless, after making all these allowances, it is a frightening prospect, and could be a tragic one, if a small minority of the nations of the world march into the space age, exploiting its potential and at least having the opportunity of solving its problems, while the great majority are denied entrance to this new world or find such entrance intolerably delayed.

Of course, none of this argues that we must now have or should have, world government and that the nation-state should disappear. On the contrary, it is clear that the nation-state has particularly vital functions at this juncture in history.

What it does mean is that there must be a great concern in all nations for the fate of all other nations, and that this must reflect itself in more effective co-operation, including co-operation for development.

I realize that governments and citizens feel a special responsibility toward their countrymen. But the world is now too small to confine that responsibility within national boundaries.

If the nation-state cannot meet this test, if it cannot co-operate with other states to ensure certain basic social and economic conditions as the minimum entitlement of all men, it may disappear—and it will deserve to do so. Humanity is quite ruthless in dealing with social and political forms and institutions which have outlived their usefulness.

These are not new truths. We have recognized them for years and have accepted, in principle, their implications. Indeed, there has been nothing more encouraging since the end of the last war, than the growing acceptance of a commitment to help in this historic task of world development. Are we to abandon it now?

It could be—for the evidence grows that there is a weakening of the political will to carry on with the commitment in some, including the richest, of the developed countries. Some reasons for this weariness and weakness of will I have mentioned. Others stem from expecting too much too soon; from forgetting there is no such thing as instant development.

Still others are traceable to wrong impressions of how much aid has been provided for development, as distinct from shorter term political and military objectives. It is no more sensible to criticize aid provided in support of immediate political or military goals on the grounds that it has not resulted in development than it is to criticize shipments of instruments of war for the same failure.

To these things must be added a great misunderstanding about what has, in fact, happened in developing countries; about what *has* been achieved and what *can* be achieved in the future if there is the will to sustain

Photo © Ed van der Elsken, Amsterdam. From "Sweet Life", Harry N. Abrams, New York

the development effort. Look at the record of growth in Gross National Product. This is not by any means a complete measure, for development is much more than G.N.P. As Gunnar Myrdal says, "development is the movement of the whole social system upwards".

But figures for G.N.P. do indicate the progress which has been made. The average annual rate of G.N.P. for all developing countries between 1950 and 1968 has been a remarkable 4.8 per cent. Taking the 1960s alone it now appears that the United Nations development target of five per cent per year will be met.

Even if we take income per head, the record is still historically impressive. Some forty-one developing countries have, since 1955, managed average growth in income "per capita" of two per cent or more for a ten-year period. This is roughly what the developed countries of Western Europe and North America achieved in the century starting in 1850.

It is even more encouraging that these forty-one countries, about a third of all the developing countries, are not confined to any geographical area, topography, race, religion, or population size. They are equally divided between Africa, Latin America and Asia, and they include some of the largest countries as well as some of the smallest.

I do not claim, of course, that this achievement can simply be laid at the door of foreign aid and technical assistance. Of course not. At least 85 per cent of the whole investment effort has been achieved by the developing people themselves. Aid in capital and expertise has often been a catalyst of local action. As a source of scarce foreign exchange, it has frequently been indispensable.

But the hard grinding work and saving that underlie development, particularly in countries with desperately low standards of living—this has been, as it must be, accomplished by the people themselves.

It is not easy to cast our minds back twenty years. It reminds us of too many of our mistakes. But it is worth recalling that doubt was widespread in the mid-40s whether there could be any development of significance in countries which began with the enormous backlog of poverty, illiteracy, inefficiency and instability which characterized so many of the developing countries.

Those who doubted the possibility of progress were wrong. Underdevelopment is not necessarily a vicious circle; it is an evil that man has the power to eradicate. To use Professor Arthur Lewis' pungent phrase, underdevelopment is "a lickable proposition". But to "lick" it, a greater and better managed effort for international co-operative assistance is required and we won't have a hundred years to do it.

The record is all the more impressive if we recollect that over sixty new countries gained formal independence in the twenty years following the Second World War. They have added their voices to a clamorous protest against the inequity of human conditions.

Which of us, knowing the conflicting political, tribal and cultural pressures, as well as the economic weakness and lack of political experience which afflicted new developing coun-

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tries, would have dared to predict that they would pass through the crucial early stages of political independence with, on the whole, only limited, though highly publicized, turmoil and with strengthened political frameworks? It took great faith and great foresight in the new countries to do this. Fortunately, there were also men of the same foresight and faith who were prepared to help them by a massive transfer of resources, material and human.

Those qualities are now to be tested once more, for we stand at a critical point in the development effort.

The figures indicating progress are encouraging. They show what can be done. But against the needs and the magnitude of the problem—and against the present mood of disengagement—they give little ground for optimism and none whatever for complacency.

DESPITE great over-all progress, the impact made on the poverty of individuals comprising nearly two-thirds of the world's population is still pitifully small. Living conditions in most developing areas remain well below the standard of Europe before the industrial revolution. Well over half of the citizens of developing countries still must survive on average annual incomes below $100 a year.

Many of these countries, including some of the largest and poorest, have fallen considerably below the average rate of growth. With the rapid rise in population the improvement in income per head is often imperceptible. People live longer, but often not any better.

Many more children are in school, but the education they are receiving is often irrelevant to their surroundings and their country's needs. There are immense problems of uncontrolled urban migration and unemployment. Even the encouraging results of the "green revolution" in agriculture have created new problems as well as removed old ones.

These are but a few of the problems ahead. Yet, we now have the one indispensable element with which policy-makers in the 1940s were not blessed. We know, as they did not know, that development programmes can work, that development can, in fact, be induced where—but only where—there is the will and the work. We must now ask how we can use this knowledge for a new, accepted, and more systematic approach to the development problems of the 1970s and beyond.

'Tragic consequences will surely follow tomorrow our failure to act today'

WE strongly believe that development must, in the future—even more than it has in the past—be an active and a genuine partnership between rich nations and poor. It is futile to hope for the day when either side can stand off at a distance and provide or receive large quantities of aid without fully understanding and participating in the process by which their allocation and use is decided.

No country has the right to intervene in another's policy-making, but any country or agency which transfers resources to another country does have a right to be heard and to be informed about decisions which basically affect the development it is helping to support.

This partnership, which must be separated as much as possible from the vagaries of day-to-day politics, is basic to a sustained relationship centred upon long-term development objectives which is the only proper basis for a systematic approach to the problem. It must cover not only the official resource flows, which are the responsibility of governments and which, strictly speaking, are alone entitled to be called "aid"; it must also include policies with respect to trade and private capital flows which can be equally important to the growth of the developing countries.

These private flows, of course (they make up now nearly half the total flow of financial resources to developing countries) are no burden on the taxpayer. They may be a risk—as well as a profit—for the investor, but the burden—after allowing for the very real development value of the loan—is on those who have to do the repaying. That burden is now heavy in certain developing countries and is increasing in some to the point where debt servicing is exceeding new lending.

Second, it is clear that official aid should increasingly be directed to economic development, as opposed to the many shorter term objectives to which it has been so often directed in the past.

There are, of course, countries where rapid development must await basic and long-term improvements in social conditions, but for the great majority of countries a concerted effort at development which produces clear and measurable progress should now be possible and should be the basis for self-sustaining growth as well as for the social progress which must not be separated from it.

Additional aid, in short, should be aimed at a clear and tangible objective and allocated according to explicit criteria which emphasize, above all, the economic performance of the recipient but do not ignore social change.

We feel that the over-all target for the 1970s should be an average annual rate of growth of 6 per cent for the developed world as a whole...

We understand and accept that this will be an average rate of growth, and that some countries will do better and some worse. Nevertheless, we believe that this global target could be of great use in establishing a bench-mark by which progress can be measured and success defined.

We also strongly believe that a simple growth rate and a global target is not enough. To be satisfactory to both developed and developing countries, aid must be planned to help an economy reach the point where growth is self-sustaining, and can be maintained without foreign financing on concessional terms...

SOME of the machinery necessary for this purpose is already in existence. We are encouraged by the work of the consortia, of the consultative groups, and of regional organizations, which combine donors and recipients in a regular forum in which both past performance and future aid requirements are reviewed.

We believe that this sort of system should come into being in those countries and regions where it is not now the rule. To this end we recommend that the World Bank and the regional banks not only take the lead in strengthening these institutions where they exist, but also in helping to create new ones where they are needed. There must be greater co-ordination and broader consultation on all aspects of the development process—especially in the field—if the aid relationship is to be effective and satisfactory.

Both the concept of partnership embracing all relevant resource flows, and the allocation of additional aid principally according to agreed standards of

CONTINUED PAGE 12

The production of electric power has multiplied by seven in Asia, five in Africa, and four in Latin America in the last twenty years. Although in many parts of the developing world demand still runs ahead of supply, power production has met the needs of rapidly growing industries, provided irrigation for agriculture and a vastly improved service for urban consumers, and has made possible a start on rural electrification.

Drawing © "Condelec" magazine, Buenos Aires

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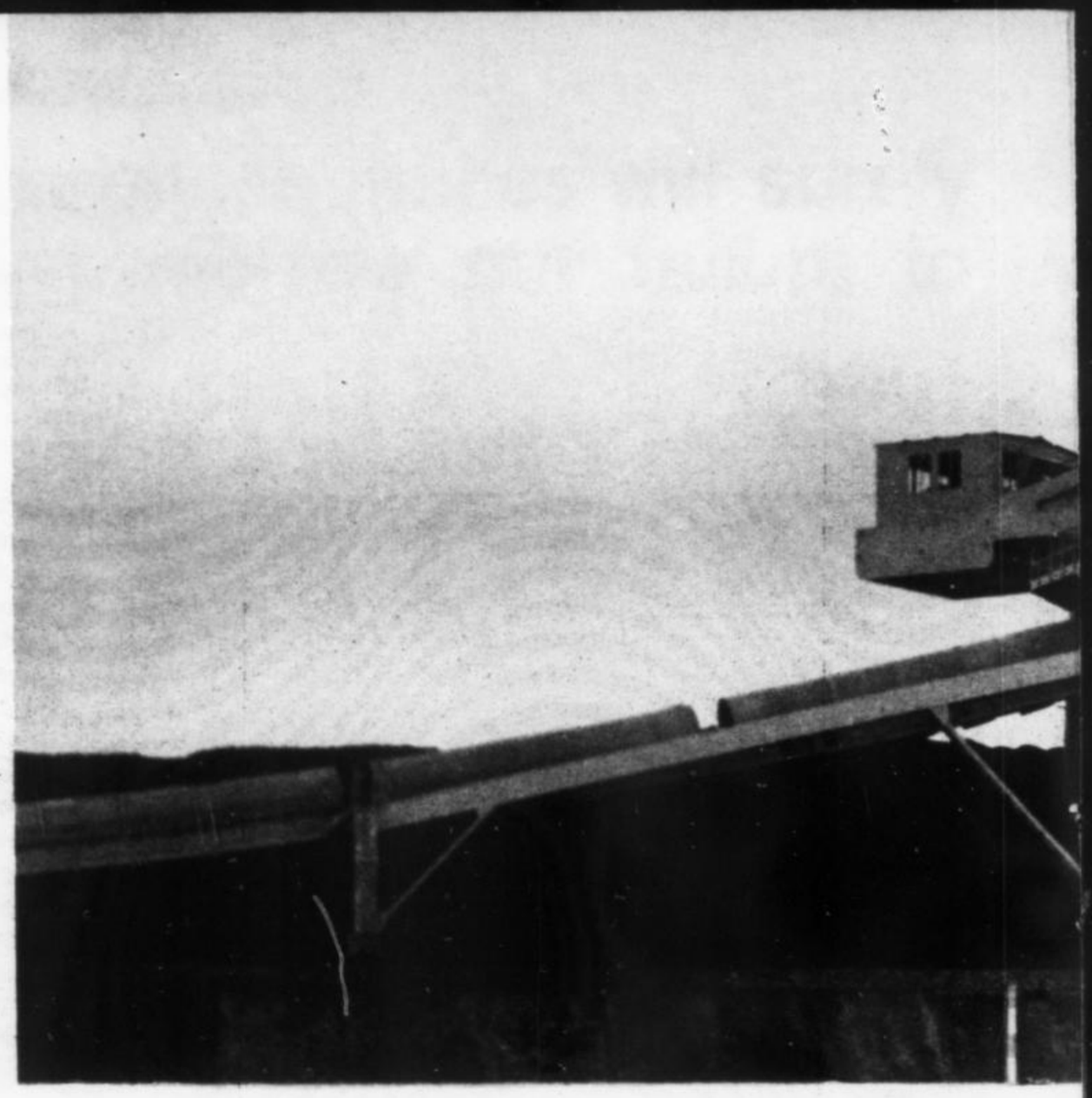

Aid from the World Bank and its associated organizations for African development has increased considerably in recent years. By March 1969, loans, credits and investments totalled over $2,000 million. They have helped to build roads, railways and pipelines, to construct hydro-electric installations, to improve and expand schooling and technical training, and to develop industrial production and mining. Photo shows huge mounds of manganese ore in Gabon, where mining of rich deposits has been extensively developed.

Is 1% of G.N.P. too much to ask the rich countries?

performance, underline the need for a much larger multilateral element in the international aid system. The present flow of concessional finance from multilateral institutions comprises only about 11 per cent of the total flow of official development aid. We believe that, by 1975, it should make up at least 20 per cent.

Multilateral agencies enjoy special advantages for conducting an objective assessment of both feasibility and performance, as well as the allocation of aid, but, to play the bigger role we visualize for them, they must be efficient in organization and administration.

This does not mean, of course, that there should be any diminution in bilateral aid. Indeed, our recommendations would result in two-thirds of the increased flow going through bilateral channels.

We particularly suggest a stronger role for the International Development Association (I.D.A.). We believe that among existing organizations, I.D.A. is in the best position to exert leadership in the effort to establish criteria for the allocation of aid which emphasize economic performance, rather than the political relationships and historical accidents which bear little or no relation to development needs or performance. We also believe that I.D.A. can be central to the establishment of new co-ordinated machinery designed to pul! bilateral and multilateral instruments together into a more coherent and regularized administrative system.

With progress and improvement in the allocation and organization of aid, we recommend a substantial increase in its volume. Specifically, we believe that the already agreed objective of public and private transfer from developed to developing countries of 1 per cent of Gross National Product should be confirmed.

We do not believe, however, that it is realistic to assume that all countries can reach the 1 per cent target at once even though they have accepted it in principle. For some the distance to be covered is too large and the sequence of appropriation, commitment and expenditure too long.

We believe, however, that it is both possible and necessary to reach or exceed this goal by 1975. All developed countries should accept this deadline; announce the steps they intend to take to achieve it, and report periodically on the progress made.

Perhaps even more important, we believe that the flow of official development aid, the only kind which really involves a burden on the taxpayer, should reach 0.7 per cent of the Gross

FINANCING DEVELOPMENT

Financing development is the business of three international organizations that form the World Bank Group—the World Bank, the International Finance Corporation and the International Development Association—and of the United Nations Development Programme.

THE WORLD BANK (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development) has acquired a formidable experience of development finance since it made its first loan in 1947. From early support of power and transport projects, it has diversified its operations to include financing of agriculture, industry and education. The Bank (110 member countries) also helps member states to draw up development programmes, advises on economic policy, assists in planning projects and studies development problems.

THE INTERNATIONAL FINANCE CORPORATION (IFC), established in 1956, assists member countries (today 91) to develop the private sector of their economies by loans and investments not secured by government guarantee. From financing mining and manufacturing, IFC has entered new fields: food-processing, distribution services and tourism.

THE INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATION (IDA), set up in 1960, supplies capital on especially favourable terms to the least prosperous countries. Its funds come mainly from contributions by 18 more prosperous governments of its 102 member countries and from the World Bank's own net earnings.

During the past ten years, the World Bank Group has invested about $1,000 million a year in development.

THE UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (UNDP) was set up in 1965 by a merger of two existing U.N. development operations—the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance and the Special Fund—to enable the entire U.N. family to respond more effectively to the needs of the low-income countries. The world's largest multinational source of pre-investment assistance and technical co-operation, UNDP opens the way for large-scale capital investment: more than $1,900 million in development investment has followed 37 major UNDP projects—undertaken at a total cost of only $43 million.

Photo © Afrique Photo, Paris

National Product by 1975. The additional average annual amount, about $1,500 million, required to reach this target is modest enough in relation to the annual increase of Gross National Product in the developed countries, which will be about $120,000 million, but we recognize that it may cause difficulty for some countries. Nevertheless, we firmly believe that no smaller transfers can secure the international development objective which all seek.

It is not enough that there be more aid. It must also be better aid, more effectively organized and administered. It must be suited to the needs of soundly conceived development plans, whether this will require project or non-project financing. It must be increasingly untied so that the administrative and economic evils of tying are no longer visited upon the recipients. It must be accompanied more and more with integrated technical assistance which provides the knowledge and skill necessary to make use of the funds provided. Our report contains many recommendations on this matter of quality and I cannot over emphasize its importance.

This emphasis on official aid in no way means that we minimize the importance of private flows. On the contrary, we feel that private foreign investment and the transfer of know-how are important and need to be stimulated. We make recommendations to this end for improving the climate that will take into account the legitimate interests of both the foreign investors and the preoccupations of the recipient country.

The vital importance of trade for development is also underlined in our report. A continued vigorous expansion of world trade is a basic condition for rapid international development. Many developing countries must become more outward looking and competitive, but the developed countries also must review their trade policies to remove obstacles to the expansion of the trade of the developing countries.

The ideas I have suggested are heavily dependent on the success of another effort; that to control the rapid growth in population. This growth is largely due to the fact that the death rate has gone down—not that the birth rate has gone up. Nevertheless, it is increasingly clear that nothing we do in the development field in low-income countries will be of lasting significance unless and until there is a substantial slowing of the rate of population growth which now threatens in many countries to overwhelm all other progress.

Population is still not an easy subject to discuss though there has been much more candour in talk about it in recent years. It remains, in our view, a matter of family and national decision in which no outside authority ought to intervene. However, it is so important to the future of not only the development effort but the entire world that no aid-providing agency can ignore performance in this area any more than it can ignore performance in any other.

We are aware that economic and social progress is in the long run the best way of stabilizing population growth. But we haven't a long run any longer. There is a population explosion and immediate action is needed.

We would hope that the trend which has already appeared and seems to be gathering force in developing countries toward more concern with family planning will gain even more momentum in the years ahead.

These, then, are some of the basic ideas of our report. In them, we have tried to balance the goal of self-sustained development in the low-income world by the end of this century, with co-operative policy and action for aid based on a genuine partnership.

To those who have grasped the vision of balanced development in a world community, with all that this holds for the future, but do not appreciate the practical difficulties now in the way, the immediate steps suggested in our report will appear too timid.

Those who do not accept our assessment of the problem may find them unrealistic and unnecessary. We, ourselves, believe that these recommendations are practicable and attainable if—and I know how big an "if" can be —there is the will to that end; a will which will be shown on both sides of the development front.

We are not so presumptuous as to assume that our investigation and our

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report reveals new truths. Our hope is more modest. It is that our findings may provoke the world-wide reconsideration we believe the subject now needs; that, in the words of Mr. McNamara, it may "stimulate discussion and debate—and prompt action—on the issues in the widest possible forum; among governments, among international agencies, among public and private organizations of every size and description which are concerned with what I believe history will regard as the most crucial task that confronted our century: the orderly development of mankind itself in an era of revolutionary technological change."

We are encouraged by Mr. McNamara's pledge given "to undertake a careful analysis of each of the commission's recommendations which in any way bears upon the (Bank's) work and to submit these analyses to the Bank's directors with recommendations for appropriate action."

In the policies and action to meet what is, in fact, a crisis in international development, indifference rather than opposition is the greatest obstacle to progress.

THE time has come for all men of good will to recognize that this indifference, or the kind of mild support that gives development assistance a very low priority, is not good enough to meet the challenge. Aid for development must be given a high priority even in the company of guns, butter and outer space. History leaves no choice, in the coming decade, to developed and developing countries alike, but to face together with honesty and energy the difficult, frustrating, but vitally important problems that are caused by the grossly uneven pattern of world growth.

Basically, what we have to offer as a rationale for action to change this pattern is our vision of a world community in which all peoples can participate with dignity and self-respect; in which the deprived and disadvantaged will join the mainstream of technological and social progress.

We can only ask those who do not share this vision to look ahead for 25 years and try to determine what the world will look like then, if the division into the rich and the poor, the developed and the stagnant societies continues and widens, as it will certainly do if we do not work together to prevent it. Then think back to the measures we could have taken, and thereby have avoided the tragic consequences that will surely follow tomorrow our failure to act today. ■

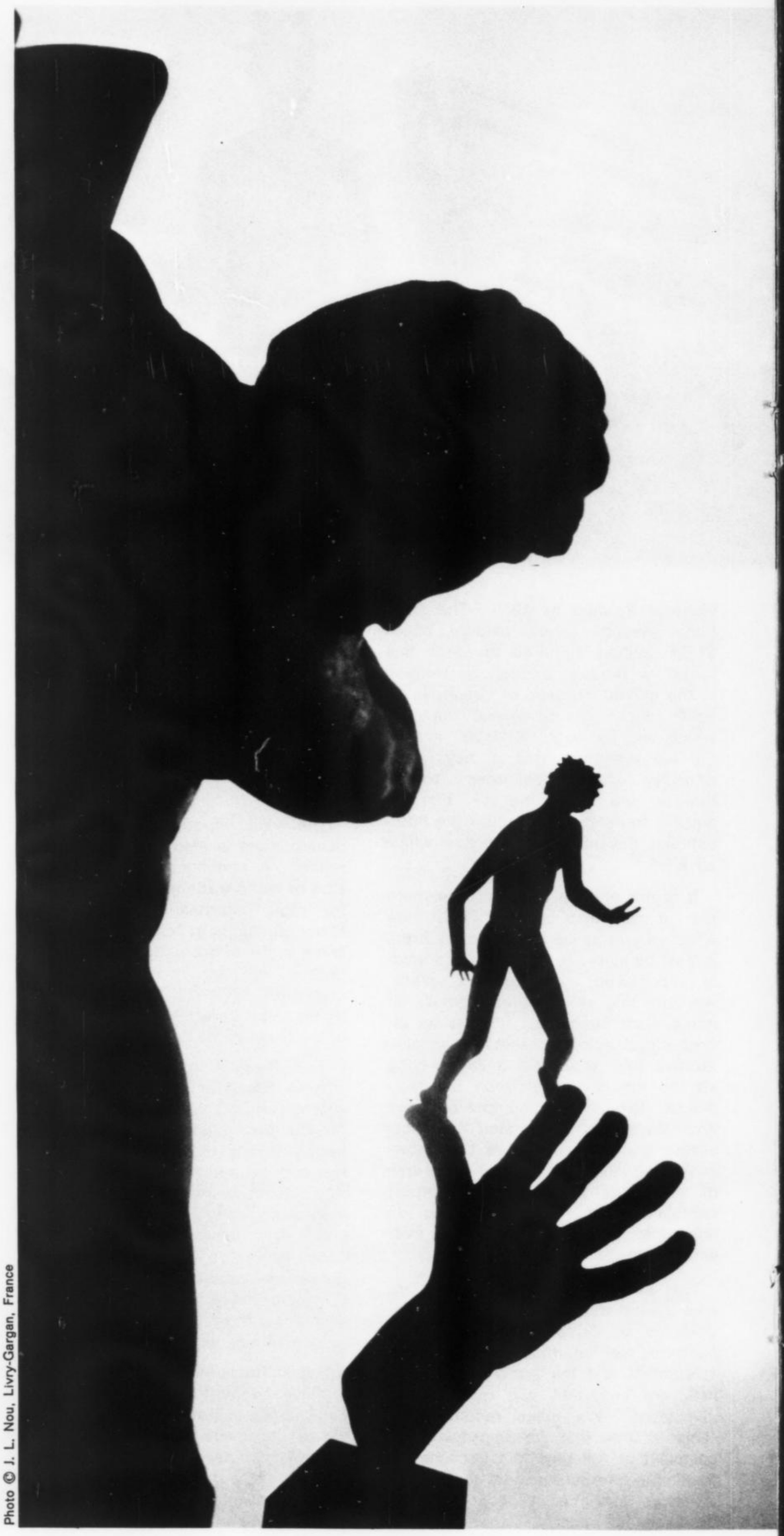

Photo © J. L. Nou, Livry-Gargan, France

THE STRATEGY IN A NUTSHELL

The following are the 30 major goals and recommendations of the Pearson Commission Report on international development:

IN THE FIELD OF TRADE

- **Vigorous expansion of world trade is needed for rapid international development, with developing countries becoming more outward-looking and competitive.**
- **Developed countries should abolish import duties and excessive excise taxes on primary commodities produced exclusively by the developing nations. Developing countries should be assured of an increasing share of markets for their agricultural products which may also be produced in the developed countries.**
- **Financing should be available to help poor countries meet shortfalls in export earnings.**
- **Quantitative restrictions on manufactured imports from developing countries should be abolished during the 1970s. Trade between the developing countries themselves must be greatly expanded, partly through new mutual tariff concession agreements.**
- **Regional development banks should be more strongly supported and they should extend export credits to developing countries.**
- **International organizations should study the need for international payments arrangements to facilitate trade among developing countries, and they should negotiate mutual and wide-ranging tariff concessions.**
- **Financial support is needed for stores of agricultural products to meet periods of lean years and to stabilize prices.**

FOREIGN INVESTMENT

- **Developing countries should remove impediments to foreign investment and assure stability and improved administrative procedures affecting foreign firms.**
- **Foreign investors in developing countries should contribute to manpower training, local industry and national growth.**
- **Developing countries should not grant foreign investors excessive protection and tax concessions.**

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- **International organizations and creditor governments should set up an "early warning system" to let developing countries know they are nearing the danger zone of excessive debt burden.**
- **Private foreign investment is not an alternative to public aid. Official aid to finance roads, schools and hospitals is a prerequisite to private investment.**

ECONOMIC GROWTH

- **Increases in aid should be clearly aimed at helping the developing countries to reach a path of sustained growth. The target of the 1970s is to increase average annual GNP at least 6 per cent per year. Countries that reach this level should be self-reliant by the end of the century.**
- **Aid increases in the future should be closely linked to the economic objectives and development performance of the countries receiving aid. In return, poor countries should expect commitments of support from rich countries.**

VOLUME OF AID

- **The U.N. target of foreign aid by wealthier nations equalling 1 per cent of their gross national product should be reached by 1975 at the latest. Public or government aid in the form of grants or low or interest-free loans should make up 0.70 per cent of the gross national product by 1975 and in no case later than 1980.**
- **Food aid programmes will have to be replaced by other forms of aid as developing countries become more self-reliant in food production.**

DEBT RELIEF

- **Debt relief should be recognized as a legitimate form of aid. To avoid future debt crises, aid terms should be more lenient and uniform among donor groups.**

AID ADMINISTRATION

- **Foreign aid donors and receiving countries should meet this year to cut through administrative red tape and set up three-year programmes instead of annual budgets.**
- **There should be less strings attached to aid-giving obliging developing countries to buy goods in donor countries. Donor nations should grant more leeway allowing their funds to be used for buying in other developing countries.**

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

- **Rapid growth during the 1960s of more than 10 per cent a year has created shortcomings in this form of aid. It has often failed to meet actual requirements of developing countries, especially in agriculture and education, and has not been adequately integrated with capital assistance.**

- National and international corps of technical assistants should be able to make a career of their work, with help from both donor countries and private institutions.

POPULATION CONTROL

- Family planning should be available to all. No child should be born unwanted. Birth rate control must be stressed by both donors and recipients when planning aid programmes.
- A Commissioner for Population should be appointed by the United Nations to help direct population control programmes in the various U.N. agencies.
- The World Bank in consultation with the World Health Organization should launch an international programme for the mobilization of research resources in this field.

AID TO EDUCATION AND RESEARCH

- Greater resources should be made available for educational research and experimentation in new teaching methods in developing countries to increase their capacity to absorb, adapt and develop scientific and technical knowledge.
- A share of research and development resources in industrialized countries should be oriented towards problems in developing countries. Rich countries should help in setting up international and regional centres for research and development in fields such as tropical agriculture, extension techniques, education, and urban planning.

MULTI-LATERAL AID

- International organizations must exert greater leadership and direction to make development assistance a genuinely international effort.
- The share of multilateral aid should be increased from the present 10 per cent of official public aid to 20 per cent by 1975. The International Development Association (IDA), the World Bank's easy-loan financing agency, should become a pivotal organization in multilateral aid efforts.
- IDA should almost quadruple its work by 1975 with national contributions reaching a total of $1,500 million compared with a level of $400 million at present. Regional development banks must also receive increased support.
- The president of the World Bank should call a conference during 1970 of all U.N. and other international, multilateral and bilateral agencies to work toward co-ordinating their efforts, now lacking direction, so as to create a coherent international aid system.

TAKING THE WIND BY THE ROOT

Photos © Bachofen, Geneva

XUM

UNESCO

1970 INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION YEAR

Message from Mr. René Maheu Director-General of Unesco

At the beginning of the New Year, I should like to remind all the countries of the world that, at the suggestion of Unesco, the General Assembly of the United Nations has designated 1970 as INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION YEAR; and I would ask them to do everything in their power from now on to make this a year of significant achievement, both qualitative and quantitative, in the field of education.

In many countries, at the present time, both the forms and the content of education are being seriously challenged. Instead of indulging the illusion that controversies and passions will eventually die down, we shall do better to make a bold attempt to understand and grapple with the crisis—a crisis in which we should, moreover, discern not so much the threat of some unthinkable collapse as the promise of a necessary renaissance.

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We live in a world that is changing before our very eyes—a world in which the population explosion, decolonization and the profound economic and social transformations resulting from technological development are so many forces making for the democratization of education. At the same time the acceleration of scientific progress is resulting in the more and more rapid obsolescence of knowledge, while the development of mass communication techniques and audio-visual methods is revolutionizing the traditional bases of communication. With all this it is out of the question for education to be confined, as in the past, to training the leaders of tomorrow's society in accordance with some predetermined scheme of structures, needs and ideas, or to preparing the young, once and for all, for a given type of existence. Education is no longer the privilege of an elite or the task of a particular age; to an increasing extent, it is reaching out to embrace the whole of society and the entire life-span of the individual. This means that it must be continuous and omnipresent. It must no longer be thought of as preparation for life, but as a dimension of life, characterized by continual acquisition of knowledge and ceaseless re-examination of ideas.

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But how is education to broaden its bounds in this way if it remains divided in its internal organization and isolated as a whole from life and society? Not only are the various elements involved in the educational process often poorly integrated, but education as such is still all too often cut off from the rest of human activity. In too many cases, the school, the college and the university, far from living at one with the community, constitute worlds of their own.

That an electronic engineer—for example—should have no properly organized means of sharing his knowledge with those of his colleagues, friends and neighbours who would like to bring their information up to date; that an educational establishment should be used for a maximum of only two hundred days in the year, and then for eight hours a day at the very most; that young people who have studied for several years at

school or university should be unable to turn the skills they have acquired to account on the labour market because they have failed in some competitive or other examination: all this is waste—waste of material resources, waste of human potential—which must no longer be tolerated anywhere, and least of all in the developing countries.

And since I have referred to those countries, how can I pass over in silence the most scandalous of all the many instances of wasted human potential: namely, illiteracy, which still, at the present time, keeps more than one-third of the human race in a state of helplessness, below the level of modern civilization? When shall we make up our minds to eliminate this scourge from the face of the earth?

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These are the sort of problems to which the world community is invited to address itself on the occasion of INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION YEAR, in order that bold and inventive solutions may be found and applied. And it is towards the universal and life-long education I have referred to that Unesco asks governments, institutions and individuals to direct the necessary effort of reflection and promotion.

No one can be blind to the immense difficulties of the structural and intellectual conversion that this idea of life-long education implies if it is not to be allowed to sink in a bog of empty verbiage. For what is needed is nothing less than the organic integration of school and university education with out-of-school education and adult education—two branches which, even today, are all too often regarded as peripheral when it is obvious, if we take an overall view, that they are bound to play an essential part in the continuing and many-sided moulding of the human mind. Naturally, no one supposes that all this can be achieved, anywhere, in the course of a single year. But the time has come for all of us to advance boldly together along this path, which is the path of the future of mankind.

The great crises of education have always coincided with profound changes in society and in civilization. I believe that we are approaching

one of those moments in history. The need for new human models, both for society and for the individual, is making itself felt almost everywhere. And while inventions of such complexity are beyond the power of education alone, we all realize that without education they would be quite impossible. For, when all is said and done, no progress has reality or meaning for man except in so far as it is projected and reflected in his education.

It is therefore in the name of the right of every human being to education, as a right to progress and renewal, that I declare INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION YEAR open and appeal to peoples for that generous emulation and to States for that beneficent co-operation on which its success depends.

René Maheu —

In regions where soil is shallow and vulnerable to erosion by wind and floods, tree roots, like friendly hands, help to sustain and stabilize the topsoil. When forests are cut down indiscriminatingly the soil is swept away, leaving a bare eroded landscape. Over the centuries this has happened in Algeria to the detriment of farming and also of dams which are quickly filled with silt carried in by flood waters. To halt the devastation of its arable land, Algeria, with aid from FAO, has launched a big reafforestation programme in which young men and women will help to restore the country's vanished forests.
Above, ploughing up land near Batna, Algeria, where foresters will plant new trees (above left). Left, ranks of newly planted trees stand guard on the edge of scarred, eroded land. Right, nursery for young trees where millions of pines and eucalyptus saplings are raised for reafforestation projects.

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Kaleidoscope of the Third World

THE phrase "less developed countries" is used to refer to almost 100 nations, poor in money income but diverse in culture, economic condition, and social and political structure. Consequently, the first implication of concern for their development is recognition of their immense diversity. For example:

● Low-income countries include India with 530 million people, South Korea with 30 million, Costa Rica with 1.5 million, and Gabon with 500,000. India has 17 states, the largest with more people than any European country; Gabon has fewer people than a single borough of London.

Large size entails complex problems of administration and political cohesion as well as large markets and potential economies of scale; small countries often present a significantly different picture, with problems centering on limited markets, shortages of skills, and weak bargaining power.

● Population is growing rapidly in most of the developing countries, but there are great differences in social and economic problems where there are 1,200 people per square mile, as in East Pakistan, as opposed to where there are 26, as in Brazil. Where new lands can be opened up, at whatever cost, the psychology is not the same as where fixed amounts of land are subdivided into ever less adequate parcels.

● The political systems of the developing countries range from fully participatory democracy through one-party systems to dictatorships. The private sector is heavily relied upon in some economies, and the public sector in others, with a majority of economies somewhere in between, except for public utilities and heavy industries which are usually owned by the state.

As political consciousness increases and economic power is diversified, traditional values give way to new patterns of behaviour, reflected in an even richer kaleidoscope of political patterns and economic policies.

● The diversity among value systems in low-income countries is at least as great as in the industrialized world. Some societies are as old as the Mexican or Indian; some were only recently freed from colonialism; some are committed to rapid industrialization while others have yet to chart a clear economic course; some societies have no choice but to devote most of their energies to composing racial and tribal differences to achieve viable statehood. Neither the acquisition of wealth nor the regimentation of the machine are universally admired or accepted.

● The capacity to absorb political and economic change also varies widely, with the social flexibility, the colonial history, the reservoir of skilled manpower, and a host of other variables. The administrative capacity essential for coping with change is greater in Latin America and Asia than in Africa. However, even when there is good administrative capacity, as in the Asian subcontinent, it may prove unable to move from traditional law and order functions to promotion of change without loss of efficiency.

● There are also great variations in income level and economic potential. Argentina has an income of more than $780 per head, India about $90 and several countries less than $60. Most of the people in some countries live on the brink of subsistence, while in others the minimum amenities are, or can be, assured.

There are similarly vast differences in economic structure. There are many economies which place heavy reliance on foreign trade, but also a few, like India, which depend only marginally on trade. Such countries as Zambia and Venezuela have large mineral sectors; a few, such as Hong Kong and Mexico, have substantial industrial sectors; but the great majority are overwhelmingly dependent on agriculture.

There are equally sharp differences in patterns of ownership and income distribution. Economic potential is, of course, difficult to assess accurately; discoveries of oil reserves, gas fields, or new uses for old metals continue to prove earlier forecasts fallacious. Still, given our present knowledge, Turkey is reasonably well endowed with raw materials and a temperate climate—Chad is not. India has all the physical resources of a great power—some countries hardly seem to have the basic requisites for national survival.

Thus development problems are vastly different from country to country. National objectives are determined by past experiences and by cultural and political history, filtered perhaps imperfectly through the rulers' desires.

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Latin America's income per head has grown substantially since 1945, slightly exceeding the average growth rates for Africa and South Asia. Manufacturing has been the most rapidly growing sector, expanding by an annual average of 6 per cent for the region as a whole. Right, nylon processing plant in Colombia's largest synthetic fibre producing factory which recently launched a $10.2 million project to raise production by 70 per cent. The International Finance Corporation, the World Bank affiliate that invests in private enterprise in developing countries, has provided $1.2 million for the project.

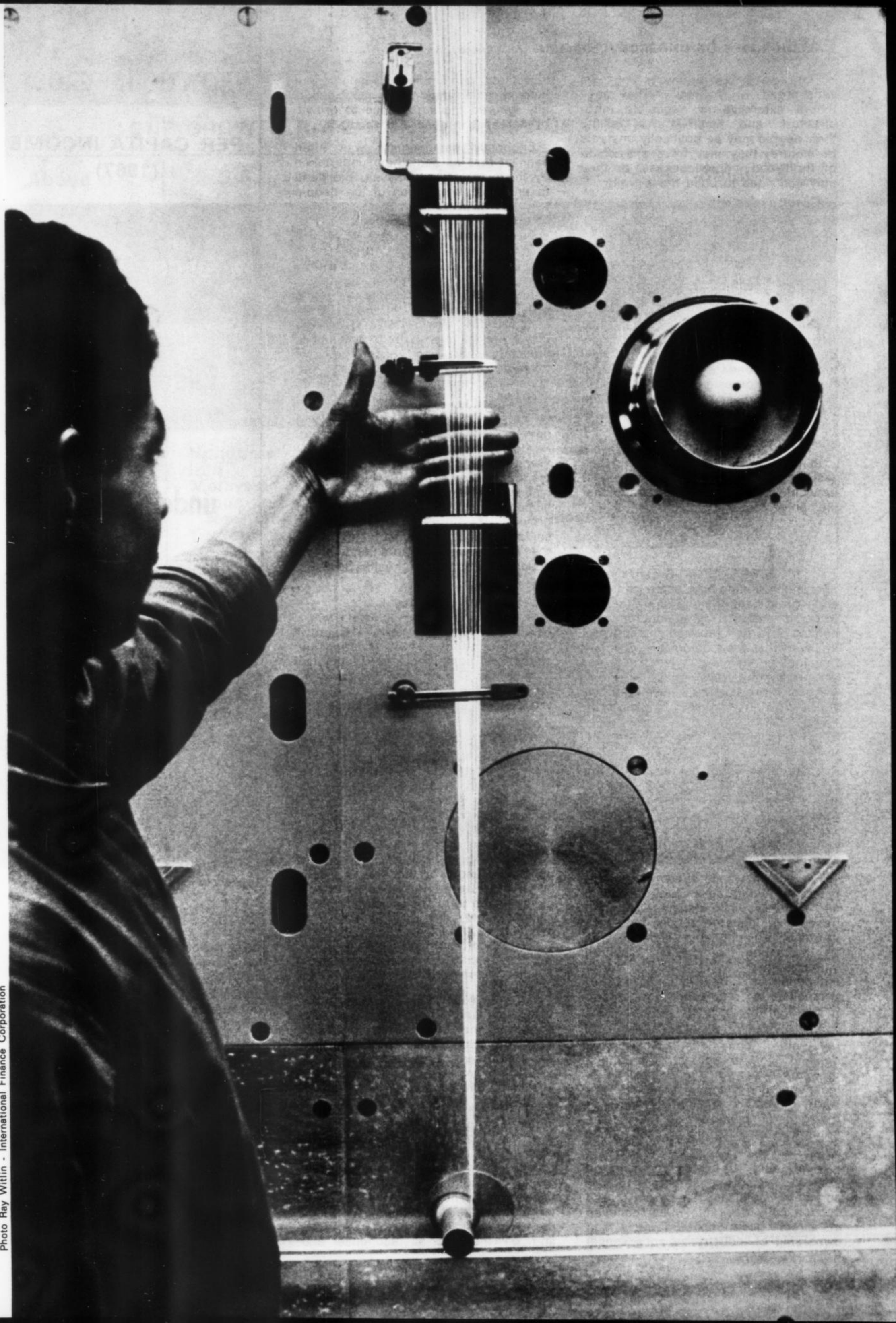

Photo Ray Witlin - International Finance Corporation

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The role of governments may be widespread or minimal. They may inherit extensive or negligible infrastructure and administrative skills; their people may be politically unstable or mature; they may have a tradition of thrift and industriousness, or they may still need to build these traits.

Despite this diversity, a common purpose emerges in nearly every country: to reduce poverty; to ensure minimum levels of education, health, housing, and food to every citizen; to increase control over nature by the nation and the individual; to broaden the opportunity for choice.

The balance of the past has been upset in many ways—by new desires, reduced mortality rates, new technology—and the material objectives find new expressions as they merge with old and varied cultures. One would not expect the ascendancy of new aspirations to be a smooth or silent process, and it has not been.

In most countries development has resulted only through constant struggle between modernizing and traditional elements.

LESS than twenty years ago, much technology, some patience, and a great deal of money were thought to combine all the ingredients for overcoming poverty. Most colonial powers believed that their colonies—for many developing countries were not yet independent—would need decades of assistance before they had the economic and administrative capacity for statehood. Talk of rapid progress after independence was considered visionary.

In the developing countries, on the other hand, elimination of colonial rule was almost everywhere seen as opening the way to early prosperity. The nature of the obstacles that colonialism imposed were, naturally, seen differently in different countries.

To some it was a system that kept them producing agricultural products and minerals while denying them the benefits of industrialization; to others its most objectionable element was its protection of foreign industrial undertakings, which could, after independence, be nationalized or compelled by regulations to conform to national interests.

Of course, concern about unfavourable conditions of foreign demand for traditional agricultural products was not limited to newly independent developing countries, nor were there no similarities between the general postures of low-income countries on matters of economic policy.

Most such countries emphasized domestic, import-substituting industry as both politically necessary and economically desirable; most believed in direct governmental action and ownership of industry as an essential ingredient of national planning and income redistribution; and most generally ignored the importance to growth of increases in general productivity.

Economic development was often seen at first as something undertaken by the elite *for* the masses; the need to engage the energies of the people was hardly considered important even where in theory their participation was considered desirable. Market forces, private ownership, and profit were often distrusted—in part because they were associated with the spread of colonialism, in part because the ruling groups came from the military or administrative elite. Those who were concerned to distribute income more equitably had no experience of taxation, public expenditures, and generalized incentives as instruments of policy.

The role of government in promoting development was often misinterpreted. Particularly in the former colonial areas it was seen as an extension of the centralized, control-oriented colonial rule. Few fully appreciated the human resources needed for rapid growth, the growing pressure for social services, particularly in towns, the importance of more and better education and better health facilities.

The donor countries also exhibited imperfect understanding of these problems. The former colonial powers continued financial and technical assistance to the newly independent states, and some assistance began to flow from other donors, but development did not become an important focus of assistance until the latter part of the 1950s.

Initially, it was assumed that technical assistance to transfer skills and technology and commercial types of financing was adequate. Even where soft loans or grants were available, e.g., from the United States, there was little understanding of the scale of problem being addressed, the magnitude of the necessary social and political change, or the time it would take. Nor were the impact of trade policy or the terms of assistance given much thought.

UNDERSTANDING of development and its effect on the total economy and society has gradually improved, but only in this decade has the improved understanding found expression in policy. The process is still far from complete.

These oversimplifications led both industrial and low-income countries to overemphasize aid flows and per capita GNP (Gross National Product) growth, a habit which is only slowly giving way to the realization that the impact of aid flows on GNP depends largely on the efficiency with which the recipient uses domestic resources and on the over-all economic and social policies which he pursues.

These policies have other goals —e.g., equality of personal or regional income distribution, or investment in education and social services—which sometimes must be met at the expense of a lower rate of growth. There also is an increasing understanding that aid flows may be offset, or growth limited, by unfavourable international trade and monetary policies.

Past approaches are gradually being modified by the experience of two decades.

Many developing countries now recognize that the economy must be more outward-looking; that export earnings, not aid, must be the principal source of foreign exchange.

It is also increasingly clear that the

GROWTH IN GROSS NAT

PER CAPITA INCOME (1967)

under $100

under $200

under $300

under $500

over $500

Source : World Bank

IONAL PRODUCT AND LEVEL OF PER CAPITA INCOME IN 69 COUNTRIES

GNP GROWTH RATE, ANNUAL AVERAGE (1960-1967)				
Above 6 %	5-6 %	4-5 %	3-4 %	Below 3 %
	Guinea Malawi Pakistan	Ethiopia Tanzania	India Nigeria	Burma Congo (Dem. Rep.) Haiti Mali Somalia
Rep. of Korea Mauritania Thailand	Bolivia Syria U.A.R.	Ecuador Kenya Philippines Zambia	Ceylon Congo (Brazzaville) Morocco Sudan Uganda	Cameroon Indonesia
China (Taiwan) El Salvador Iran Ivory Coast Jordan	Honduras Iraq Malaysia Papua and New Guinea Turkey	Brazil Colombia Paraguay	Dominican Republic Ghana Liberia Tunisia	Algeria Senegal
Nicaragua Peru	Costa Rica Guatemala	Gabon	Guyana Jamaica	
Cyprus Greece Israel Libya Mexico Panama Spain Trinidad and Tobago Yugoslavia		Chile Lebanon Venezuela		Argentina Uruguay

agricultural sector, which contains most of the people, is capable of rapid growth and that promoting growth in this sector is necessary to create demand for domestic industries, to provide industrial raw materials, and to fuel the drive for greater exports.

Even in the countries most committed to public ownership, increasing attention is now being paid to mobilizing and allocating resources through individual incentives and initiative. The public sector retains its generally broad responsibility in utilities, transport, natural resources, and basic industries, but there is a greater willingness to work through the market and use profit incentives, within constraints dictated by social and political objectives.

Industrialized countries, on the other hand, increasingly understand that the framework for development in today's developing countries is immensely different from that in Europe and North America during the Industrial Revolution. Few cared then about urban slums, child labour, poor working conditions, and abysmal wages. Who does not care now?

Political consciousness has created demands for public services and equitable income distribution which did not occur in the industrialized countries until a much higher level of income and productivity had been reached.

The demographic situation is also very different and imposes high costs. The equilibrium between deaths and births has been disturbed abruptly and has accelerated population growth rates while migration to new lands is severely restricted.

Finally, the very technology which the developing countries inherit, and which makes rapid growth possible, also brings problems—e.g., manpower training, maintenance, and a very much higher capital cost per worker—which the industrial countries were able to solve gradually. Educated to some extent by their attempts to eliminate the vestiges of poverty in their own societies, industrialized countries are beginning to understand the social and political complexities of development.

Most important, they now understand that there is no single strategy or

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universal prescription for development which is valid in all countries at all times; many combinations of policies and priorities are both possible and necessary.

Some, but by no means all, of this new awareness has been reflected in the aid programmes by which donors give meaning to their concern for the fate of the poorer countries. External assistance has been vital in many countries to alleviate shortages of skills, to make possible higher rates of savings and investment, to improve social services, and to accelerate, the rate of growth.

But aid has also served a second critical purpose. When provided in proper ways, it has afforded low-income countries some of the flexibility necessary to undertake such bold policy changes as devaluation and liberalization of restrictions on imports. (Of course, the failure of aid to grow in recent years has made it more and more difficult to mobilize adequate support for significant policy change in countries where a lack of foreign exchange has been the first constraint on growth.)

IN Africa, where foreign exchange is not yet the major constraint, the volume of aid and the aid relationship nevertheless play an important role in economic policy formulation.

Even where the importance of local efforts and policies has been recognized, however, discussions between donors and recipients have often been less than satisfactory. Sometimes joint analysis of the problem has led to effective joint action, but often commitment to development is lacking —on one side or on both—or is misinterpreted.

Problems range from the unwillingness of recipients to interfere with vested interests to donor refusal to assist potentially competitive sectors or to open their markets to new products. Often, too, donor and recipient differ about the importance or political sensitivity of an act, or the speed with which there is a likelihood of it being accomplished.

Finally, political priorities of both recipients and donors are often indefinite and certainly changeable. Recipient countries have received conflicting policy advice from different donors, or from the same institution in different years. Their priorities are subject to the normal political pressures, and settling and acting on them is difficult.

Thus, while attention has been successfully focused on development policies and the support they require, the mechanism for implementing a joint analysis is still, with some notable exceptions, far from adequate. ■

An answer to the population dilemma:

NO other phenomenon casts a darker shadow over the prospects for international development than the staggering growth of population. It is evident that it is a major cause of the large discrepancy between rates of economic improvement in rich and poor countries. On the other hand, the likelihood of a rapid slowing down of population growth is not great, although some countries are in a far more favourable position than others in this respect.

Twenty years ago, it was not expected that population growth would become such a major problem in low-income countries. As late as 1951, a U.N. projection assumed that between 1950 and 1980 the populations of Africa and Asia would grow at an annual rate of 0.7-1.3 per cent.

The remarkable and largely unexpected success in reducing mortality brought a sharp change. The rate of population growth in developing countries increased steadily in the 1950s. By the mid-1960s, it settled down at an average level of 2.5 per cent.

Mortality is continuing its decline, but over-all fertility rates are only now beginning to drop. While in a number of developing countries, fertility has been declining for some time, in others it is increasing as a result of improvement in health and medical services. Even if fertility should be considerably reduced in coming decades, the population of the less developed world will double before the end of this century. (See Table page 26.)

There has been a remarkable awakening to the acute problems posed by this population explosion. In only a few years, ambitious policies to spread family planning have been introduced in countries representing over 70 per cent of the population of the developing world. The development of intra-uterine contraceptive devices (IUD's) and of oral pills has amounted to a major breakthrough in family planning techniques.

However, many misconceptions about the nature of the population problem persist among policy-makers in low-income countries and contribute to complacency and indifference. Even countries which have adopted official population policies do not always accord to them the high priority they require.

Most widespread of all is the belief that in small or sparsely settled countries, rapid population growth is in the national interest or raises no problems, as there is much empty land. This proposition neglects the fact that large capital expenditures are necessary for cultivation and settlement in empty land—in the modern world, the possession of land is not enough.

Another common opinion is that birth rates are high and families large because parents want it that way, and that it would be difficult or even impossible to persuade them to have smaller families.

Actually, however, many of the children born today are unwanted. Numerous field surveys of parents in developing countries indicate that birth rates would be reduced by one-third if parents had the knowledge and means to plan the size of their families.

The incidence of illegal abortions, and of maternal deaths from such

Photo © Lucien Clergue, Arles, France

No more unwanted children

abortions, is high enough to be a grave social problem in Latin America and elsewhere. As a consequence of the sudden decline in infant mortality, families tend to be larger than their traditional size, and larger than parents can afford. In short, there is in many parts of the world a silent demand for family planning.

All the burdens from large families and high growth rates are not borne by parents alone. When the population doubles in twenty-five years, the task of development and modernization is compounded. It may even be impossible to attain significant improvement in living conditions and independence of foreign aid. Some of the direct difficulties created by very rapid population growth are the following:

- Expenditures for education, health, housing, water supply, etc., increase sharply and create severe budgetary strains.
- The quality of the next generation, on which the prospects for development crucially rest, is jeopardized. There is a strong inverse correlation between child health and family size. Rapid growth of the child population also delays educational improvement.
- Considerable resources are devoted to the support of a large dependent population which would otherwise be available to raise living standards and increase capital formation.
- Aid requirements are larger when population rises fast, and the possibility of future financial independence smaller than if fertility is declining.
- The distribution of income is unequal, and population growth tends to make it more so by raising land values and rents while depressing wages. As ownership, too, is usually very unequally distributed, the bulk of the population may fail to participate in whatever improvement occurs.
- Severe urban problems arise, partly from natural increase and partly from migration from the country into the cities. Urban populations tend to double in fifteen to eighteen years. Housing already presents almost insoluble problems in many of the developing countries.

WHETHER or not a deliberate policy on population should be adopted is a decision which each individual country itself must face. This is, of course, a highly controversial matter which, until very recently, placed family planning behind a wall of silence in the industrialized countries themselves. But it is clear that there can be no serious social and economic planning unless the ominous implications of uncontrolled population growth are understood and acted upon.

Demographic conditions in the less developed countries are extremely diverse. In parts of Asia the density of settlement is so high as to raise concerns about the shortage of land. In Africa and Latin America, on the other hand, settlement is so sparse that it is impossible to speak of overpopulation. But in all developing countries the population is rising very much faster than only two decades ago.

It is important to distinguish between two quite different reasons for the rapid increase in population. One is that many parents have more children than they wish, especially after the recent declines in infant mortality which have had the consequence that family size increases sharply unless birth rates decline. Another reason, however, is that the number of children parents in developing countries want to have is also quite large.

Family-planning policies by and large address themselves to the problem of preventing unwanted births. They are based on the assumption that parents have the right to decide on the number and the spacing of their children, and on the evidence that high and unrestricted fertility is a major social problem.

Malnutrition and mental retardation, high infant mortality, and illiteracy are all more probable when a new child must compete for survival with its elders in conditions of great poverty. The need for responsible parenthood is not disputed even by those who do not yet endorse all contraceptive techniques, and we believe that the right of individuals to knowledge and means of family planning is fundamental to social progress.

However, rapid population growth may also be injurious to a society even though individual parents desire to have large families. This dilemma prevails in many countries, rich and poor. A conflict between social and private interests in a matter so intimate as this is bound to raise delicate issues.

But no society which has learned to control mortality can long escape the need to control birth, and many of the developing countries are now convinced of the need for population

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Family planning and economic realities

policies to bring down birth rates. Developing countries should identify their population problem, if they have not already done so, and recognize the relevance of population growth to their social and economic planning, and adopt appropriate programmes.

Aid-givers cannot be indifferent to population planning and policy-making, inadequate or otherwise, in the receiving countries. In particular, they must be concerned if even the magnitude of the present population is unknown and if trends for the future receive little attention, as is the case in some of the poorer countries.

BILATERAL and international agencies should, in their aid negociations, press for adequate analysis of population problems and the bearing of these problems on development programmes.

But it would be particularly unwise for aid-givers to insist on the adoption of population policies by other countries as a condition for aid. Only a genuine conviction on the part of governments in developing countries can produce the strong political support and the determined leadership which experience has shown that family-planning programmes and population policy require.

In many of the rich countries, governments have not yet moved as far in their own public policies as their citizens have in the adoption of family planning. To convey to their aid partners their awareness of population problems, such governments must first be in a position to preach what they practice.

The population problem is serious enough, even in the industrialized countries, to call for much greater preoccupation with population study and research. This is also a prerequisite for any serious technical assistance to developing countries. Outside a very few of the largest industrial countries, demography and population studies still receive no more than casual attention at universities and research institutes.

The wealthy countries can hardly qualify for an active discussion about population policy in developing countries without giving firm support to international organizations which have a much larger role to play in this field than they have so far done. The passivity and hesitancy of international bodies has to a large extent reflected the ambivalence and confusion of the industrialized member countries.

It seems particularly wrong for countries which themselves have so far been spared the acute need for population policy to refuse international organizations the right or the means to help countries which request assistance in this field.

Since 1965, there has, in fact, been a very pronounced tendency to enlarge the scope for international action in this field. UNICEF and other specialized agencies have all received mandates to assist in the formulation and execution of family-planning policies.

Both for the study of demographic trends and their implications, and for the initiation and extension of family-planning programmes in countries which have decided to pursue them, there is an acute need for experts and training. This is one of the most important tasks of these organizations.

The financial requirements of family-planning programmes are not very large compared to other development expenditures. Budgets in developing countries, however, are often so strained and foreign exchange shortages so acute that programmes are held up by bottlenecks which can be broken by relatively modest amounts of aid.

Such aid is now provided by some bilateral donors, notably the United States and Sweden, and on a modest scale by international organizations. For aid suppliers who hesitate to build up specialized machinery for this kind of assistance, the use of special trust funds administered by international organizations should commend itself.

In 1967, a Trust Fund for Population Activities was established in the United Nations, with the purpose of supporting activities in the population field. We believe that this fund could expect far more generous support than it has so far received if prospective donors could be assured that good projects are, in fact, available, and that U.N. activities in the population field are satisfactorily co-ordinated.

As things now stand, there are both gaps and overlaps in the handling of population problems by U.N. agencies. Effective organization of assistance for population programmes is needlessly delayed.

Among the proposals for improved co-ordination is the creation of a United Nations Commissioner for Population. His task should be to obtain and maintain an over-all view of the needs of developing countries in the population field, to have principal responsibility for the allocation of the Trust Fund, and to head up machinery to co-ordinate the population activities of U.N. agencies.

It is necessary to take far-reaching but practicable actions if the great opportunities for international assistance in this area are to be utilized.

To make the knowledge and means of family planning available to all is an enormous task in societies where communication and commercial distribution channels are highly imperfect. Experience suggests that wherever possible it is desirable to integrate family-planning activities with public health programmes.

Facilities for maternal and child health programmes to instruct women in family planning after delivery seem

Population projections for the year 2000 *

(In Millions)

	1968	2000	
		Low	High
Industrialized Areas	**1,040**	**1,250**	**1,400**
Europe	460	490	530
Soviet Union	240	320	350
North America	220	290	350
Others	120	150	170
Developing Areas	**2,430**	**4,720**	**5,560**
China (Mainland)	730	1,000	1,400
Other Asia	1,100	2,300	2,600
Africa	330	770	860
Latin America	270	650	700
World	**3,500**	**6,000**	**7,000**

** The two variants of the projection for the year 2000 are based on assumptions about "low" and "high" fertility. Some fertility decline is assumed in both cases, faster in the "low" variant, slower in the "high" variant. Mortality is expected to continue its decline until the expectation of life at birth reaches seventy-four years. The variants have been selected from the projections in* World Population Prospects as Assessed in 1963 (United Nations, 1966), *on the basis of the experience in the 1960s.*

particularly valuable, as the desire to have fewer children is closely linked to the conviction that they now have a better chance to survive.

In the developing world many parents want large families for good and valid economic reasons; not because they are ignorant or improvident. In such cases, access to family-planning information and facilities will not make much difference.

When child labour makes a significant contribution to family income and when parents are dependent on a large family for protection and security in old age, there will be few incentives to reduce fertilily, no matter what the social cost of a rapidly expanding population.

THIS is why the population problem is also related to a great number of policies and institutional changes which affect the social and economic functions of the family in a traditional society. In the long run, economic growth and modernization tend to make a large family a heavy economic burden rather than a source of gain and security, and thus to discourage fertility and slow population growth, but this process takes a long time if it is not deliberately accelerated.

Education, and perhaps particularly female education, is recognized to be of great importance, but only if it really alters people's attitudes and ambitions, which is not always the case.

The development of mass media—press, radio, and television—helps to spread new ideas, among them the notion that the ideal family should have fewer but healthier and better-educated children.

The creation of savings banks for small savers, as well as life insurance and pension funds, substitutes other and more efficient ways of providing for old age.

Most developing countries already have policies of social security of one sort or another, but most of them are poorly administered and under-financed. As a result social policy tends by and large to subsidize child-rearing more effectively than it provides social security for old age. This means it probably encourages large families instead of discouraging them.

These large and important fields of social policy which are closely related to the problems of family size should receive the greatest attention from developing countries. They also deserve wide support from all aid suppliers.

In the world today, where economic and social change is so accelerated, it would be a mistake to believe that welfare policies which reduce the

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Photo © Image Roche - Dr R. Lassère

In all developing countries population is rising very much faster than only two decades ago. But recently there has been a remarkable awakening to the acute problems posed by the population explosion. In only a few years, ambitious policies to spread family planning have been introduced in countries representing over 70 per cent of the population of the developing world. Above, a newly-opened family planning clinic in Pakistan which, with an annual population increase of 3 per cent (compared with 0.6 per cent in England and France), faces a serious threat of overpopulation.

The rising spiral of unemployment

In many, if not most of the developing countries, unemployment is turning into a major social problem and obstacle to development. The failure to create meaningful employment is the most tragic failure of development. All indications are that unemployment and under-utilization of human resources have increased in the 1960s, and that the problem will grow even more serious with the rapid growth of population.

Although there is much evidence of the appalling magnitude of the unemployment problem, there is little specific information about it. The International Labour Organization is trying to muster the resources for a large employment survey in the developing countries, and this deserves all support.

A great difficulty, especially in traditional societies, is that there is no hard and fast distinction between unemployment and underemployment.

Underemployment describes a situation in which individual capacity to work is not fully engaged, as when highly trained personnel are forced to work at menial labour for lack of demand, or when agriculture does not begin to absorb the labour available.

Although there are no firm estimates of underemployment, it is clear that recorded unemployment in the developing countries understates the problem.

Both unemployment and underemployment are results of the failure to absorb the large increase of the labour force which has followed the acceleration of population growth. Population policies can greatly affect this problem but only in the long term. Those who will constitute the labour force over the next fifteen years are already born.

It is not impossible for employment to grow fast, but it requires a high degree of dynamism and flexibility, energetic entrepreneurship, and encouragement of rapid change. In the nonfarming sectors of low-income countries, one of the reasons why extensive development efforts have failed to create adequate employment opportunities has undoubtedly been the overstimulation of capital-intensive and labour-saving technology by artificial distortion of factor prices.

Such technology is readily available in the industrialized countries, and there has been a tendency for aid-giving agencies and foreign contractors to transfer it without modification.

Although in many cases the adoption of such technology is unavoidable or even desirable to preserve competitive efficiency, present policies often make capital-intensive methods appear too attractive. Concessional interest rates, overvalued exchange rates, and differenciated tariffs reduce the private cost of imported capital equipment, while market wage rates overstate the real cost of labour.

Increasing capacity to absorb labour also requires that wage rates are not raised so high as to discourage the use of labour and encourage the use of capital-intensive and labour-saving methods of production.

But in many developing countries the inequality of income distribution is an inducement to employment policies which are determined by political considerations and which make the cost of labour very high. Such policies may also have the consequence of attracting labour from the rural sector to the towns where even occasional employment may be more remunerative than full-time agricultural work.

The main burden of absorbing the increase in the labour force falls inevitably on agriculture which, in most of the developing countries, occupies some 60 to 80 per cent of that force. Only a fraction of the new workers can find employment in non-agricultural sectors even if these expand with great rapidity.

A strategy for agricultural development which increases employment opportunities rapidly without depressing incomes must focus on labour-using and capital-saving ways of improving agricultural productivity. Much pessimism has been voiced about the possibility of significant change in this direction.

An encouraging aspect of agricultural development in the last few years, however, is that the major increases in yields resulting from the new varieties and intensified irrigation are not dependent on large-scale substitution of capital for labour.

Nevertheless, there is a danger that as agricultural income rises, well-to-do farmers will prefer to invest in agricultural machinery rather than to employ large numbers of people, especially if government policy stimulates premature mechanization. It seems particularly important that the mistakes of industrial policy in this regard are not repeated in the design of agricultural development strategy.

The urgency of the unemployment problem requires positive policies and programmes to reduce unemployment and underemployment. In many areas

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The increasing flow of migrants from countryside to city, a constant trend in the developing world, adds to the already acute problem of unemployment (photos right). Urban growth is almost universally twice as rapid as the growth of the population in general. If present trends continued, cities such as Calcutta (India) would have over 35 million inhabitants by the year 2000.

Photo © J. Kosidowski

Photo © Alain Keler

Photo © Afrique Photo, Paris

In probably no other area of social improvement have greater victories been won in the past 20 years than that of public health. Most of the developing world has recorded gains in life expectancy which took a century to achieve in the industrialized countries. The scourge of malaria, for example, has been eliminated in vast areas, thus increasing capacity to work and opening up territories for new cultivation. Photo shows insecticides being sprayed on haunts of malarial mosquitos in Senegal.

UNEMPLOYMENT *(Continued)*

more unskilled labour could be used to meet many urgent needs. Housing, construction of schools and health facilities, rural markets, secondary roads, irrigation facilities are all examples. While this requires a massive administrative effort and also a great amount of money, it would create additional incomes which generate additional demand.

Unhappily, even where the administrative capacity exists to undertake labour-intensive programmes on a massive scale, countries are restrained from doing so by fear of their inflationary impact and by shortage of foreign exchange. Foreign aid and sensible fiscal policy can mitigate these problems if the former is provided on suitable terms.

Progress must be made in solving the unemployment problem if social and political turmoil is not to arrest the development process. For it is in the volatile cities of the developing world that agricultural stagnation and industrial unemployment combine to produce their gravest consequences.

Urban growth is almost universally twice as rapid as the growth of the population in general, and some of the largest cities have even higher rates of expansion. Rural stagnation stimulates a flow of migrants from the land, and urban death rates are often lower than those in the countryside while fertility generally remains high.

It must be asked whether urban trends can be left to be the by-product of other forces in society. *If present trends continued, the largest city in India would have over 35 million inhabitants by the year 2000.*

Planning strategy in developing countries must emphasize the growth of small and intermediate regional centres, to offer market, service and storage facilities, and light labour-intensive industries processing local materials. The construction of such new centres could offer a considerable measure of employment for unskilled labour. ■

The Green Revolution

UNTIL quite recently it seemed that the hopes for rapid economic progress in many of the poorest countries were doomed by very slow growth of the huge agricultural sector. Agricultural production barely kept pace with population growth, and in many areas fell behind.

The less developed countries, which had been net *exporters* of 14 million tons of cereal grains each year in the 1930s, became net *importers* of 10 million tons per year in the 1960s. Imports rose even further in 1966 and 1967 after the monsoon rains in South Asia had failed two years in succession. There was widespread prediction of imminent famine.

These dire forecasts could not take into account the progress that has now been made in seed research, in irrigation practices, in extension work, and in agricultural education. They also ignored the impact price incentives could have on agricultural practices and production. As controls over production were relaxed and prices for farm products were made remunerative, farmers proved willing to adopt a new technology with amazing rapidity.

The situation today is radically different from earlier pessimistic forecasts. A good part of the developing world is now experiencing a major breakthrough in food production, widely characterized as the Green Revolution.

In 1968-69, India's food output was about 8 million tons larger than the previous record of 89 million tons in 1964-65. Pakistan increased its wheat production by 50 per cent in two years. Ceylon's rice production has gone up by 34 per cent between 1966 and 1968, and in the Philippines two bumper rice harvests seem to have ended half a century of dependence on imported rice. The most dramatic advances have been concentrated in Asia.

These dramatic increases are well illustrated by experience in India and Pakistan. Indian agriculture employs 70 per cent of the population and contributes 46 per cent of the national product. Yet, before the mid-1960s, agriculture received only about 15 per cent of the Indian public development expenditures and was not regarded as a potential growth sector.

Little attention was paid to price incentives for farmers, to the provision of such agricultural inputs as fertilizer, improved seeds, and farm machinery, or to problems of farm credit.

THE droughts which struck large parts of India in 1965 and 1966 made it necessary to raise the level of food imports to 10 million tons per year. This highlighted the necessity of a drastic revision of agricultural policy

Almost simultaneously, new high-yield varieties of wheat and rice became available. These "dwarf" varieties had been developed in Mexico and the Philippines under the sponsorship of the Ford and Rockefeller Foundations. They permit profitable application of up to three or four times as much fertilizer as traditional varieties, which combined with irrigation and pesticides makes possible a doubling or tripling of yields.

These improved strains were quickly adopted in India, investment in agriculture was expanded, and support prices were raised. Together, these steps represented substantial new incentives, leading to improved yields.

In West Pakistan, lack of drainage had by the 1950s raised the groundwater level, which put large areas of farmland out of production by increasing salinity in the soil. However, the threat of disaster was turned into a blessing.

The solution to the salinization problem was the sinking of deep tubewells to lower the water level by intensive pumping, which permitted the saline soil to be reclaimed. The tubewells also produced large supplies of irrigation water.

Originally, it was assumed that massive public programmes would be required, but individual farmers adopted this innovation spontaneously because of the tremendous use in yields made possible by the increased groundwater supply.

The surge in private tubewell development became one of the most spectacular elements of agricultural modernization in West Pakistan. In 1959-60, about 1,300 of these wells were installed by private farmers. By 1963-64, the annual rate of installation had accelerated to 6,600, and by 1967-68, to about 9,500.

Although, from a technical point of view, these wells were not very efficient, they were extremely profitable. Private and public tubewell irrigation accounted for nearly half of the expanded agricultural output during the period 1959-60 to 1965-66.

As in India, the introduction of the new varieties was swift. The acreage under the new wheat seeds rose from 200,000 acres in 1966-67 to 2.3 million acres the following year.

The new rice variety called IR-8 was planted on 9,000 acres in 1967, which produced the seed for almost 900,000 acres in 1968. Fertilizer supplies, largely financed by foreign credits, were rapidly expanded, and dramatic increases in grain production did in fact occur.

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XUM

New advances in seed research and irrigation

The Green Revolution has been a matter of both new technology and new policy. Although it is too early to say how deep and how rapid the impact will be and whether similar breakthroughs will be repeated in other parts of the world, prospects for growth obviously look far brighter.

Above all, it has been demonstrated that the peasant farmer, contrary to many expectations, is not hopelessly fettered by custom and tradition and that he is not insensitive to costs and prices. Given the reasonably secure expectation of large returns, he is likely to respond. The lessons of this experience for development policy extend beyond the sphere of agriculture.

In the fertilizer field, which is essential to the new agricultural technology, progress has been striking. There have been substantial cost reductions in the postwar period and further improvement is in prospect. The capital cost of new nitrogen plants is almost 50 per cent lower than for "old" (pre-1963) plants. Consumption has risen rapidly.

IN India, fertilizer supplies were increased by almost 80 per cent in 1966-67 over the previous year, and by another 50 per cent the following year. Domestic fertilizer production more than doubled between 1965 and 1968; imports of fertilizer and fertilizer raw materials now equal over one-fifth of India's total export earnings.

In Pakistan, fertilizer use has doubled every two years since 1960. Increases in other developing countries have been equally dramatic. Compared to the average for the five years ending in 1956-57, total consumption of nitrogenous and phosphatic fertilizer in 1967-68 was five times as great and potash use had increased sixfold.

The growth of several non-food crops, though not as dramatic as that in wheat and rice, has also been substantial. Between 1953 and 1967, cotton production in Asia and Africa rose by 40 per cent and this has been the basis for rapid growth of the textile industry in these areas.

Coffee production in Africa has almost tripled from 393,000 tons to 1,145,000 tons in the same period so that Africa now produces about 30 per cent of the world's coffee. This rapid growth of coffee exports from Africa has created marketing problems, but it does illustrate the potential of tropical agriculture for diversification and higher productivity.

If the Green Revolution signals a major breakthrough in food grain production, it also brings with it an array of new problems.

For one thing, continued heavy expenditures on agricultural research are necessary, as one seed variety is likely to last only for a few years and must be replaced by new varieties as new diseases evolve.

Moreover, accelerated agricultural extension and massive investments in irrigation and fertilizer production are needed. Increasing production also raises the demand for better marketing and distribution facilities and for more farm credit.

It will also be difficult to maintain a set of incentives for farmers which is adequate to elicit the necessary production, stimulate the continued adoption of new technology, and support diversification into other crops.

Increased tax revenue will be needed, but to tax agricultural income directly is difficult in most developing countries for the good reasons that most farmers are very poor, that such a tax would be politically explosive, and that the cost of collecting the tax might well exceed the yield.

However, the new technology is raising some rural incomes sharply. If large increases in income are to arise in agriculture, some of the increased revenue must come from these incomes. Agricultural taxation and the general division of the fruits of increased agricultural productivity among urban consumers, rural producers, and landowners will present thorny policy issues which have grave political implications and will also affect future development.

AREAS untouched by the Green Revolution, such as most of Africa and Latin America, face a more difficult task in stimulating technological change in the countryside. Many of them still seriously neglect rural development. For all countries it is important to achieve new technical breakthroughs in crops other than foodgrains, especially in exportable ones, not only to increase the food supply but also to improve its quality.

Land reform and consolidation of fragmented holdings will be needed in many developing countries not only to accelerate technological change and stimulate production in the long run, but also to generate rural employment.

History teaches us that land reform is seldom a tidy affair and is always time-consuming. However, most governments now have at their disposal the means to minimize the short-run disruptions and conflicts arising from a programme of structural change in land ownership. ■

THE JACKSON REPORT

An appraisal of U.N. development operations

A mammoth, 6,000-page report just published presents the findings of a far-ranging study of the operating capacity of the U.N. development system. "The Capacity of the U.N. Development System," as the study is called*, was commissioned by the Governing Council of the U.N. Development Programme, which appointed Sir Robert Jackson of Australia as commissioner in charge. His report may be considered as complimentary to the Pearson Report ("Partners in Development"), but whereas the latter dealt with the broad perspective of problems of development aid, the Jackson Report tackles the more specific question of the actual and potential capacity of the U.N. system to make an effective contribution to world and economic and social development. Its proposals are conceived as the first steps in a long-term process of consolidation, co-ordination and rationalization of the U.N. bodies and specialized agencies dealing with economic and social development. They will be studied by the Governing Council of the U.N. Development Programme whose recommendations will be submitted to the U.N. Economic and Social Council later this year. *(From Sales Section, United Nations, New York or Geneva: Vol. I, $1.00; Vol. II, $6.50).

Letters to the Editor

MAN AGAINST NATURE

Sir,

The Soviet magazine "Za Rubezhom" recently published some "global" observations by the American astronaut, Michael Collins, and the Norwegian seafarer, Thor Heyerdahl.

Michael Collins described the fascinating beauty of our planet with its azure expanse of oceans, and remarked on the striking contrast it presents with the lifeless desert of the lunar landscape.

Thor Heyerdahl commented sadly on the same oceans whose beauty Collins had admired from outer space. He expressed his concern over the growing pollution of the oceans by man, and warned that if the pollution of our environment continues, we shall soon "have sawn off the branch we are sitting on".

As Nature is the heritage of all mankind, the way people treat it should be controlled by laws applicable to all, and the United Nations should be directly responsible for seeing that they are observed.

The United Nations should also be given adequate means for making the oceans and continents healthier places, and funds for this should be raised by a special tax imposed on industries and other enterprises whose operations, ships, factories, vehicles, etc., pollute soil, water or air.

It is the duty of every thinking person to show genuine concern for the protection of Nature on our planet lest we unthinkingly transform it into a sad semblance of the Earth's satellite.

Kim Karpov
Moscow, U.S.S.R.

TIMELY...

Sir,

Your issue on Youth (April 1969) is a stirring, thought-provoking, timely collection of articles by writers who have been moved by the contradiction between what the world could be and what is happening to the world because of man's greed. I predict this number of the "Unesco Courier" will come to be regarded as a seminal classic.

Rachmiel Forschmidt
U.S.A.

...OR TEDIOUS ?

Sir,

The subject of Campus Unrest (April 1969) is one that most people have heard discussed too much. This number on Youth 1969 was repetitious and wordy. I found it the only uninteresting one since I have been reading the "Unesco Courier". Regardless of the stature and expertise of the writers, I doubt that many people would read it through.

E. Stockton
U.S.A.

CELTIC CULTURE TODAY

Sir,

As a long-standing reader of the "Unesco Courier", I have always enjoyed your articles on the values and traditions of relatively little-known cultures. My only regret is that so far nothing has appeared on Celtic culture and in particular on the forms in which it has been handed down and preserved in Brittany, my birthplace.

You would have no trouble in finding a rich mine of material for articles and illustrations. For a great many Bretons, like myself, the linguistic and artistic heritage of our Celtic ancestors is a very real part of our daily lives.

Jean-Roger Chasle
Maintenon, France

ECONOMISTS IN EMBRYO

Sir,

I am convinced that a most important asset to world co-operation could be furnished by providing primary school children of all countries with instruction in elementary Economics and a textbook giving the scientific definitions and relationships of the few terms which are used in the study. A belief that Land, for example, is Wealth does not accord with these definitions any more than does the myth that Money is Consumable Wealth.

Since economic knowledge gives support to economic ethics—so necessary to peace—I think that Unesco ought to print and publicize a Primer for juveniles and grade-school children on the subject.

D. Molony
Santa Barbara, California, U.S.A.

SIBERIA CALLING SVAMIT

Sir,

In your May 1969 number we read a letter from a 12-year-old English girl, Anne Souter of London, who has started a club called SVAMIT (Save Venice and Medieval Italian Tradition). We too are lovers of medieval traditions and would like to be members of Anne's club, so please give us her address.

Natasha Ivanova
Katya Vims
Elvira Vims
Omsk, Siberia, U.S.S.R.

Anne's address is 2 Baronsmead Road, Barnes, London, S.W.13.

THE ARTS AND MAN

Sir,

Congratulations and many thanks for "The Arts and Man" (May 1969). Though I have studied numerous artistic and technological aspects of modern civilization while preparing for examinations, I never fully realized to what extent the arts contribute to every part of daily life. Your remarkable number showed me the innumerable ways in which the arts "embody the universal qualities of mankind as well as the endless individual and cultural differences which exist within the family of man".

Denis Dutertre
Trainel, France

NO MORE UNWANTED CHILDREN *(Continued from page 27)*

dependence on the family as the sole source of security can have second priority in development strategy. Wherever possible all aid agencies, bilateral and multilateral, should encourage and support social policies with fertility-reducing implications.

The developed countries also have a great opportunity to make a contribution in the development of a better contraceptive technology. Here the situation in the less developed countries only dramatizes a general demand for a genuinely effective and acceptable contraceptive. The intrauterine device (IUD) and the pill represent great advances but are far from perfect in acceptability, convenience, or effectiveness in use.

Research in reproductive biology was enormously stimulated by the research for new methods of fertility control in the 1960s. This was particularly true of the study of the hormonal aspects of the female reproduction system which is where the pills intervene.

But many potentially interesting methods of fertility control centre on relatively unexplored aspects of the reproduction process. There is no shortage of suggestions and hypotheses but there is a lack of funds, of co-ordination, and of systematic contact between researchers.

An international programme of research in human reproduction, enlisting existing institutions and laboratories in high priority work on fertility control might accelerate progress in this field by years or decades.

The World Health Organization, which would be the natural focus, has long been constrained to take a limited view of problems of family planning, confining itself to family-planning activities within the framework of public health organizations. Moreover, research on human reproduction can absorb fairly sizable funds. We therefore recommend that the World Bank, in consultation with WHO, launch immediately a wide-ranging international programme for the direction, co-ordination, and financing of research in the field of human reproduction and fertility control. ■

XUM

UNESCO NEWSROOM

World weather watch

Mariners, aircrews and volunteer observers in all parts of the world recently helped meteorologists to assemble the most extensive collection of data on weather conditions yet compiled. The information will be used in preliminary studies for the Global Atmospheric Research Programme (GARP), a joint international venture of the World Meteorological Organization and the International Council of Scientific Unions. The global GARP experiment, due to take place later in the 1970s, is aimed at a fuller understanding of the structure and behaviour of the atmosphere.

'What's What' in Academia

Academic titles and grades vary so widely in meaning and status from country to country that they are difficult to compare on an international level. Unesco has now produced an international glossary —the first of a series—on the international equivalence of diplomas. Edited in French by Professor Marcel de Grandpré of the University of Montreal, it enables the reader to judge the relative value of titles awarded in the 45 countries covered in the glossary. *(Glossaire international. Termes d'usage courant en matière de certificats d'études secondaires et de diplômes et grades de l'enseignement supérieur dans 45 pays.* Unesco, Paris. ($5, 30/-).

Mid-point appraisal of Hydrological Decade

A mid-point appraisal of the Unesco-sponsored International Hydrological Decade was made recently by specialists from over 80 countries, at Unesco's H.Q. in Paris. After discussing the results of the Decade since it began in 1964, they examined proposals for the 1970-74 programme and for further international co-operation in hydrology. These suggest that special emphasis will be given to the hydrological aspects of man's impact on his environment, including the effects of desalination and the growing problem of water pollution. More use is foreseen of remote-sensing devices—such as instruments mounted on aircraft or space satellites—to collect data on the hydrology of vast and relatively inaccessible regions.

Causes of heart disease queried

High blood pressure, diabetes, overweight and a sedentary occupation, commonly considered as causes of coronary heart disease in affluent countries, do not seem to bring on this condition in developing countries, reports the WHO review, "World Health". Recent studies in the developing countries suggest that this might be due to something in African and Asian diets and ways of life. Researchers are scrutinizing food habits in a number of countries. In Singapore, for instance, there are three ethnic communities: Malay, Chinese and Indian. The Indian community, whose eating habits differ from those of the other groups, is particularly prone to heart disease. Research may show what it is the Malayans and Chinese are eating, or not eating, which acts as a barrier to heart disease.

Food aids forest development

Food aid given by the World Food Programme has helped to grow trees on 84,000 hectares of land and to build or maintain 4,300 kilometres of forest roads. Food aid is supplied to sixteen forestry projects in 15 countries employing nearly 88,000 workers. Nearly 450,000 persons (workers and families) benefit from the food which pays part of their wages and improves general nutrition. The World Food Programme is sponsored jointly by the U.N. and FAO.

Traditional music of Viet-Nam

The music of Hué, central Viet-Nam, is featured on the first LP record of Vietnamese music in the Unesco Collection, Musical Anthology of the Orient and includes court dances, songs of the traditional theatre, Buddhist chants and poetic songs (1). Twenty-one records in the Unesco Collection present music from Afghanistan, Cambodia, India, Iran, Japan, Tibet, Tunisia and Turkey.

(1) Edited for the International Music Council and published by Bärenreiter-Musicaphon of Kassel, Basel, Paris and New York.

Modern problems in biology

An international training course in modern problems in biology organized by the Institute of Microbiology, Prague, and sponsored by Unesco and WHO, will be held at the Institute from October 1, 1970 to September 15, 1971. Combining practical training and research, the course is open to young scientists who have graduated with a Master of Science or equivalent degree. Applications should be sent to: The Director, Institute of Microbiology, Budejovicka street 1083, Prague 4-Krc, Czechoslovakia, by May 31, 1970.

Critical doctor shortage in Middle East

Though Middle East medical schools have increased from 12 to 38 since 1950, the region remains critically short of doctors, reports WHO. Doctor-population ratios vary from one doctor per 400 persons to one per 10,000 in most of the region. About 3,200 doctors graduate annually, but 60 more schools would be required to meet present health needs, and 160 additional schools will be needed in the next 30 years to keep ahead of the population explosion. Another serious problem is the "brain drain" of foreign-trained doctors who fail to return to their own countries.

BOOKSHELF

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Vol. XVIII, 1970-71, 1971-72
Trilingual: English-French-Spanish
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■ **Teachers for the Schools of Tomorrow**
By Jean Thomas
(Unesco and its programme)
2nd imp. 1969 ($1; 6/-).

■ **Perspectives in Oceanography**
(Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission series, No. 6)
1969 ($3; 18/-).

■ **Industrialization and Society**
Edited by Bert F. Hoselitz and Wilbert E. More
3rd imp. 1968
Co-edition Unesco-Mouton, The Hague
(Cloth bound: $11; 66/-).

■ **Apartheid: Its Effects on Education, Science, Culture and Information**
3rd imp. 1969 ($2; 12/-).

Educational and vocational guidance

The Fourth International Round Table of Educational Counselling and Vocational Guidance will meet at the Hague, Netherlands from March 31 to April 4. It will give a chance to those in administration, practice, research or training in educational, medical, social or vocational counselling to share their experience and ideas. Further details from Mr. H.Z. Hoxter, 6 High Street South, East Ham, London.

Flashes...

■ *Fifty per cent of the world's annual potential food production is lost through wastage, reports FAO. If these losses were reduced by even 10 per cent there would be enough food and protein to give everyone in the world an adequate diet.*

■ *Total circulation of Indian newspagers has almost doubled in the last decade. Over 600 dailies are published, 40 per cent of them in Delhi and six other major Indian cities.*

■ *The current world fish catch is only 5 per cent of the 1,800 million tons of marine life that could be harvested from the oceans, according to scientists at Japan's Marine Research Bureau.*

■ *Ninety per cent of the world's initial supply of recoverable petroleum liquids and natural gas will be used up within the next 65 years, according to studies by a special committee of the National Research Council of the U.S. Academy of Sciences.*

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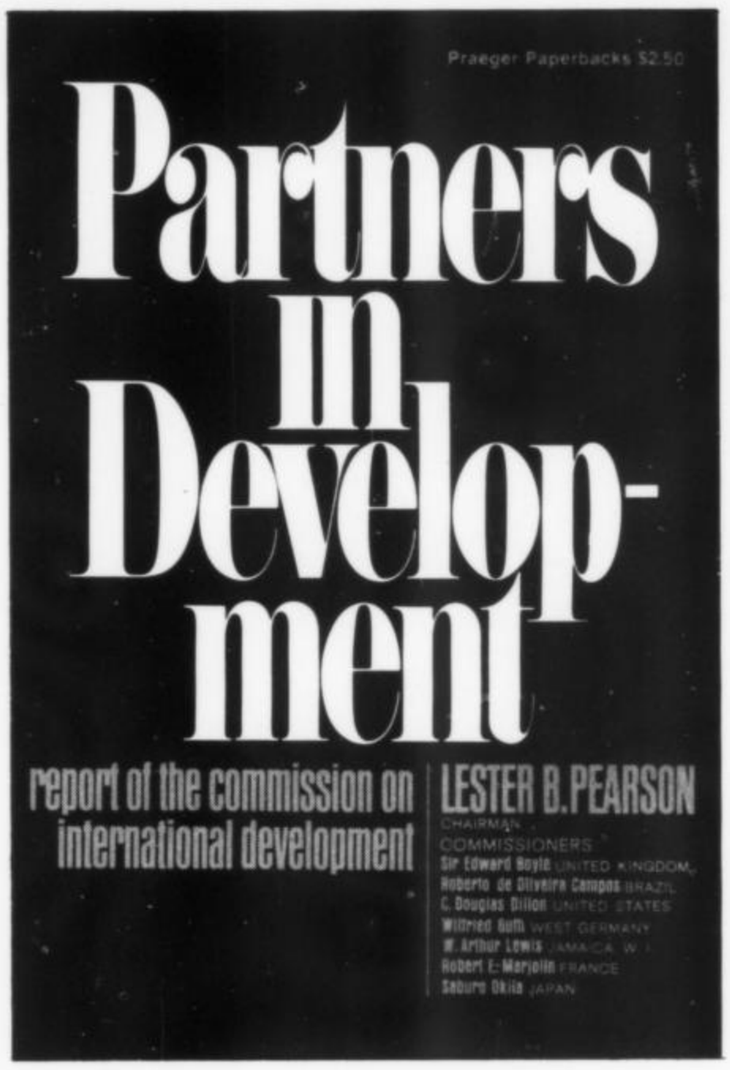

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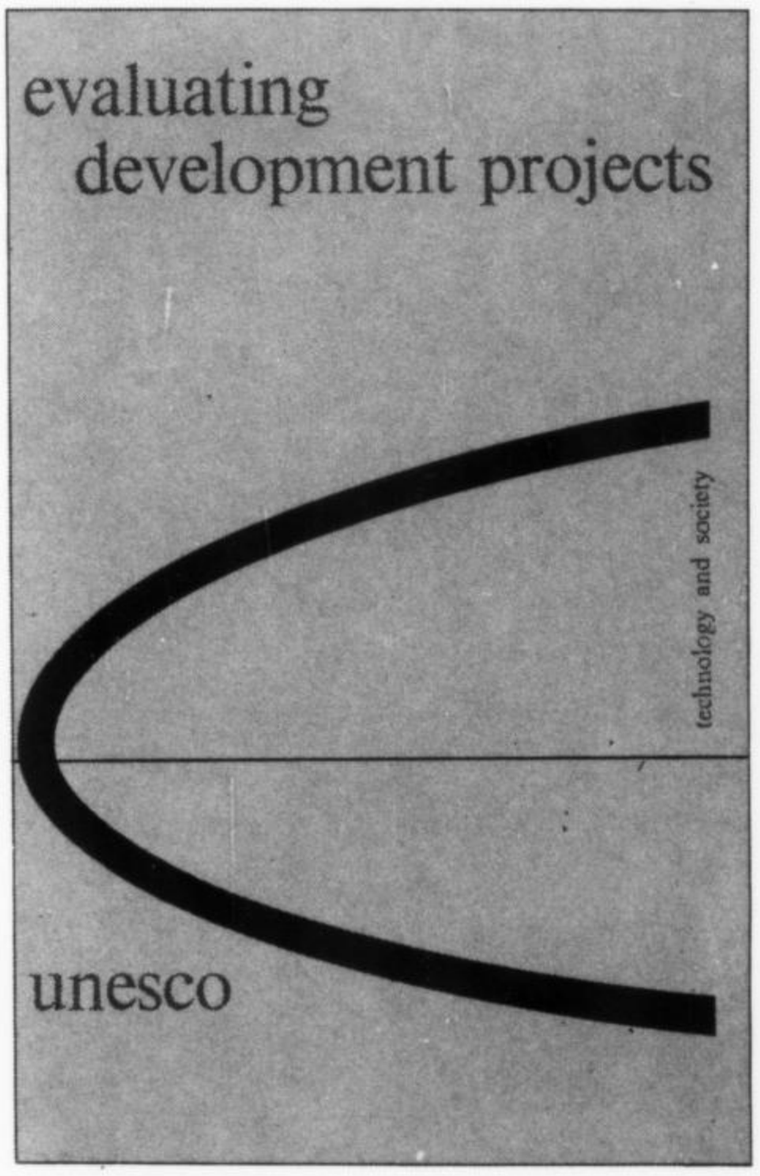

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